

ORIENTAL TRANSLATION FUND.
NEW SERIES.
VOL. XIV.

ON YUAN CHWANG'S
TRAVELS IN INDIA
629—645 A. D.

BY
THOMAS WATTERS M. R. A.

EDITED, AFTER HIS DEATH,
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LONDON
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY
22 ALBEMARLE STREET
1904.

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PREFACE.

As will be seen from Dr. Bushell's obituary notice of Thomas Watters, republished from the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* for 1901 at the end of those few words of preface, Mr. Watters left behind him a work, ready for the press, on the travels of Yuan-Chwāng in India in the 7th Century A. D. The only translation into English of the *Travels* and the *Life* of Yuan-Chwāng, the one made by the late Mr. Beal, contains many mistakes. As Mr. Watters probably knew more about Chinese Buddhist Literature than any other European scholar, and had, at the same time, a very fair knowledge both of Pali and Sanskrit, he was the very person most qualified to correct those mistakes, and to write an authoritative work on the interpretation of Yuan-Chwāng's most interesting and valuable records. The news that he had left such a work was therefore received with eager pleasure by all those interested in the history of India. And Mr. F. F. Arbuthnot, who had so generously revived our Oriental Translation Fund, was kind enough to undertake to pay for the cost of publishing the work in that series. I was asked by the Council to be the editor, and was fortunate enough to be able to receive the cooperation of Dr. S. W. Bushell C. M. G., late medical officer attached to our embassy at Peking.

We have thought it best to leave Mr. Watters's Ms. untouched, and to print the work as it stands. The

author whose untimely death was an irreparable loss to historical science, whose rare qualities of mind and the breadth of whose knowledge earned the admiration of those most qualified to judge, and whose personal qualities endeared him to all who knew him.

- T. W. RHYS DAVIDS

Nālanda, May 1904

THOMAS WATTERS,

1840—1901

With very much regret for the loss of an old friend, I have to notice the death of Mr Watters, at Ealing, on January 10th. He was a member of the Council of the Society from 1897 to 1900 and a valued contributor to the Journal. The loss of a scholar who had such a wide knowledge of the vast literature of Chinese Buddhism will be deeply felt by those interested in the subject as was amply acknowledged by Professor Rhys Davids in a few well chosen, appreciative words addressed to the last meeting of the Society.

He was born on the 9th of February, 1840, the eldest son of the Rev Thomas Watters, Presbyterian Minister of Newtownards, co Down. His father died some ten years ago, after having ministered to the same congregation for fifty six years, his mother is still living at Newtownards. It was from his father that he inherited his great love of books and he was educated by him at home until he entered Queen's College Belfast, in 1857. His college career was most distinguished, and he gained many prizes and scholarships during the three years. In 1861 he graduated B A in the Queen's University of Ireland, with first class honours in Logic, English Literature, and Metaphysics, and in 1862 took his M A degree, with first-class honours, again, in the same subjects and second class in Classics.

In 1863 he was appointed to a post in the Consular Service of China after a competitive examination, with an honorary certificate. He proceeded at once to Peking, and subsequently served in rotation at many responsible

spots in all parts of the Chinese empire. He was Acting Consul General in Corea 1887—1888, in Canton 1891—1893, and afterwards Consul in Foochow until April, 1895, when impaired health compelled him to retire finally from the Far East, after over thirty-two years' service.

But this is hardly the place to refer to Mr Watters's official work, or to the blue books in which it is bound up. In his private life he was always courteous unselfish and unassuming, a special favourite with his friends, to whose service he would devote infinite pains, whether in small matters or grave.

His early philosophical training fitted him for the study of Oriental religions and metaphysics, which always remained his chief attraction. The character of his work may be summarized in the words of an eminent French critic, who says of Mr Watters 'A ses moindres notices sur n'importe quoi on sentait si bien qu'elles étaient puisées en pleine source, et sur chaque chose il disait si bien juste ce qu'il voulait et ce qu'il fallait dire'.

Much of his best work is, unfortunately, buried in the columns of periodicals of the Far East, such as the *China Review* and the *Chinese Recorder*, his first published book being a reprint of articles in the *Chinese Recorder*. The list of his books is—

"Lao tzu. A Study in Chinese Philosophy. Hongkong
London 1870

"A Guide to the Tablets in the Temple of Confucius
Shanghai 1879

"Essays on the Chinese Language. Shanghai 1889

"Stories of Everyday Life in Modern China. Told in
Chinese and done into English by T Watters
London 1896

In our own Journal two interesting articles were contributed by him in 1898, on "The Eighteen Lohan of Chinese Buddhist Temples" and on 'Kapilavastu in the Buddhist Books'.

A far more important and extensive work remains in manuscript being a collection of critical notes on the well known travels throughout India in the seventh century of our era, of the celebrated Buddhist pilgrim Yüan Chuang (Hsüen Tsang). In this Mr Watters discusses and identifies all the Sanskrit names of places etc transliterated in the original Chinese text and adds an elaborate index of the persons mentioned in the course of the travels. The work appears to be quite ready for publication. Should means be forthcoming its appearance in print will be eagerly looked for by all interested in Buddhist lore and in the ancient geography of India.

Mr Watters has given his library of Chinese books. I am informed to his friend Mr E H Fraser C M G a Sino logue of light and learning and a Member of our Society who may be trusted I am sure to make good use of the valuable bequest.

S W BUSHELL

YÜAN CHWĀNG OR HIOUEN TH

The name of the celebrated Chinese pilgrim and translator is spelt in English in the following ways (among others):—

1. M. Stanislas Julien Hiouen Thsang.
2. Mr. Mayers¹. Huan Chwang.
3. Mr. Wylie Yuén Chwàng.
4. Mr. Beal Huen Tsiang.
5. Prof. Legge². Hsuan Chwang.
6. Prof. Bunyiu Nanjo³ Hhuen Kwân.

Sir Thomas Wade has been kind enough to explain this diversity in the following note:—

“The pilgrim’s family name was 陳, now pronounced *ch’ên*, but more anciently *ch’in*. His ‘style’ (official or honorary title) appears to have been both written

玄 1 and 元 2.
樊 樊

In modern Pekinese these would read in my transliteration (which is that here adopted by Dr. Legge)—

1 *hsuan chuang*.

2 *yuan chuang*.

The French still write for these two characters—

1 *hiouen thsang*,

2 *youan thsang*,

following the orthography of the Romish Missionaries, Premare and others, which was the one adapted to English usage by Dr. Morrison I doubt, *pace* Dr. Edkins, that we are quite sure of the contemporary pronunciation, and should prefer, therefore, myself, to adhere to the French

¹ Readers Manual, p 290. ² Fa Hien, p. 83, etc. ³ Catalogue, p 435.

Hiouen, seeing that this has received the sanctification of Julien's well known translation of the pilgrim's travels"

It is quite clear from the above that in the Chinese pronunciation of the first part of the name there is now nothing approaching to an English H. And of course Julien never intended to represent that sound by his transliteration. Initial H being practically silent in French, his Hiouen is really equal to Iouen, that is, to what *would be expressed by Yuan* in the scientific system of transliteration now being adopted for all Oriental languages. But the vowel following the initial letter is like the German u, or the French u, so that *Yuan* would, for Indianists, express the right pronunciation of this form of the word. It is particularly encouraging to the important cause of a generally intelligible system of transliteration to find that this is precisely the spelling adopted by Sir Thomas Wade.

This is, however, only one of two apparently equally correct Chinese forms of writing the first half of the name. The initial sound in the other form of the word is unknown in India and England. Sir Thomas Wade was kind enough to pronounce it for me, and it seems to be nearly the German ch (the palatal, not the guttural,—as in Madchen) or the Spanish x, only more sibilant. It is really first cousin to the x sound of the other form, being pronounced by a very similar position of the mouth and tongue. If it were represented by the symbol HS (though there is neither a simple h sound nor a simple s sound in it), then a lazy, careless, easy-going HS would tend to fade away into a x.

The latter half of the name is quite simple for Indianists. Using c for our English ch and ŋ for our English ng (n or m or m), it would be simply cwāŋ.

Part of the confusion has arisen from the fact that some authors have taken one, and some the other, of the two Chinese forms of the name. The first four of the transliterations given above are based on Sir Thomas Wade's No 2, the other two on his No 1. All, except

only that of Mr. Beal, appear to be in harmony with different complete systems of representing Chinese characters in English letters, each of which is capable of defence. The French, not having the sound of our English CH, for instance, have endeavoured to reproduce it by THS. This may no longer be used even by scholars ; but in Julien's time reasons could be adduced in support of it.

It appears, therefore, that the apparently quite contradictory, and in some parts unpronounceable, transliterations of this name, so interesting to students of Indian history, are capable of a complete and satisfactory explanation, and that the name, or rather title, is now in Pekinese—whatever it may have been elsewhere, and in the pilgrim's time—YUAN CHWĀNG.

T. W. RHYS DAVIDS.

ORIENTAL TRANSLATION F

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3, 4. Part II (Vols. I and II) of the above, containing a life of Muhammad. 1893.

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CHAPTER I.

THE TITLE AND TEXT.

THE Chinese treatise known as the *Hsi yü chi* (or *Sü-yü-kü*) is one of the classical Buddhist books of China, Korea, and Japan. It is preserved in the libraries attached to many of the large monasteries of these countries and it is occasionally found for sale in bookshops. The copies offered for sale are reprints of the work as it exists in some monastery, and they are generally made to the order of patrons of learning or Buddhism. These reprints are more or less inaccurate or imperfect, and one of them gives as the complete work only two of the twelve *chuan* which constitute the treatise.

The full title of the book is *Ta-T'ang-Hsi-yü chi* (大唐西域記), that is, "Records of Western Lands of the Great T'ang period." By the use of the qualifying term "Great T'ang" the dynasty within which the treatise was composed is indicated and this particular work is distinguished from others bearing the same general name. In some native writings we find the treatise quoted or designated by the title *Hsi-yü chuan* (傳) which also means "Records of Western Lands." But it does not appear that the work was ever published or circulated with this name. In its original state and as it exists at present the treatise is divided into twelve *chuan*, but we find mention of an edition brought out in the north of China in which there are only ten *chuan*.¹

¹ *Hsiao yüeh tsang chih chün* (小閱藏短律) ch. 4

On the title page of the *Hsi yü chi* it is represented as having been 'translated' by Yuan chuang and 'redacted' or 'compiled' by *Pien chi* (辯機). But we are not to take the word for *translate* here in its literal sense and all that it can be understood to convey is that the information given in the book was obtained by Yuan chuang from foreign sources. One writer tells us that Yuan chuang supplied the materials to *Pien chi* who wrought these up into a literary treatise. Another states that Yuan chuang communicated at intervals the facts to be recorded to *Pien chi* who afterwards wove these into a connected narrative.

This *Pien chi* was one of the learned Brethren appointed by Tai Tsung to assist Yuan chuang in the work of translating the Indian books which Yuan chuang had brought with him. It was the special duty of *Pien chi* to give literary form to the translations. He was a monk of the Hui ch'ang (會昌) Monastery and apparently in favour at the court of the Emperor. But he became mixed up in an intrigue with one of Tai Tsung's daughters and we cannot imagine a man of his bad character being on very intimate terms with the pilgrim. As to the *Hsi yü chi* we may doubt whether he really had much to do with its formation and perhaps the utmost that can be claimed for him is that he may have strung together Yuan chuang's descriptions into a connected narrative. The literary compositions of Yuan chuang to be found in other places seem to justify us in regarding him as fully competent to write the treatise before us without any help from others. Moreover in an old catalogue of books we find the composition of a 'Ta Tang Hsi yü chi' ascribed to Yuan chuang and a *Hsi yü chi* ascribed to *Pien chi* in similar terms.¹ Further in Buddhist books of the Tang and Sung periods we frequently find a statement to the effect that Yuan chuang *composed the Hsi yü chi* the word used being that which has been here rendered for the moment 'redacted' or 'compiled' (撰).² It is possible that the text as we have it now

¹ Tung chih lao the Yi wen lao c/ 4 (通志略 the 藝文略)

² Kai yuan lu (No. 1480) c/ 8. Su kao seng chuan (No. 1493) c/ 4. See also Y's Memorial to the Emperor in Ch. 6 of the Life

is for at least nine out of the twelve *chüan* practically that of the treatise drawn up by Yuan chüang and presented to his sovereign. Some of the notes and comments may have been added by Pien chü but several are evidently by a later hand. In some of the early editions these notes seem to have been incorporated in the text and there is reason for supposing that a few passages now in the text should be printed as interpolated comments.

The *Hsi yü chü* exists in several editions which present considerable variations both in the text and in the supplementary notes and explanations. For the purposes of the present Commentary copies of four editions have been used. The first of these editions is that known to scholars as the *Han shan* (寒山) *Hsi yü chü* which was brought out at private expense. This is substantially a modern Soochow reprint of the copy in one of the collections of Buddhist books appointed and decreed for Buddhist monasteries in the time of the Ming dynasty. It agrees generally with the copy in the Japanese collection of Buddhist books in the Library of the India Office and it or a similar Ming copy seems to be the only edition of the work hitherto known to western students. The second is the edition of which a copy is preserved in the library of a large Buddhist monastery near Foochow. This represents an older form of the work perhaps that of the Sung collection made in A. D. 1103 and it is in all respects superior to the common Ming text. The third is an old Japanese edition which has many typographical and other errors and also presents a text differing much from other editions. It is apparently a reprint of a Sung text and is interesting in several respects but it seems to have many faults and it is badly printed. The fourth is the edition given in the critical reprint which was recently produced in the revised collection of Buddhist books brought out in Japan. This edition

* on the completion of the Records which does not contain any mention or hint of assistance. Instead of the B reading 假 the other texts have 假 which is the correct form.

is based on the text recognized in Korea and it supplies the various readings of the Sung, Yuan, and Ming editions. Some of these variations are merely different ways of writing a character but many of them give valuable corrections for the Korean text which is often at fault.

THE TRANSLATORS

In 1857 M. Julien published his long promised translation of the "Ta-Tang Hsi yu-chi" with the title "Memoires sur les Contrees occidentales traduits du Sanscrit en Chinois, en l'an 648, par Hiouen-Thsang et du Chinois en Français." This work was regarded by the learned translator as supplementary to his "Histoire de la Vie de Hiouen-Thsang et de ses voyages dans l'Inde, depuis l'an 629 jusqu'en 645" translated by him from the Chinese and published in 1853. He had already supplemented the latter treatise by an interesting series of "Documents Geographiques" on the countries of which the book makes mention. Julien's "Memoires sur les Contrees occidentales" is a work of great merit, and it shows a wonderful knowledge of the Chinese language. Much use has been made of it by students of the history, geography, antiquities, and religions of India and Central Asia and on all these subjects it has been regarded as an authority. And although it is not wise to accept with unquestioning faith all the renderings and identifications of the translator yet it is not without diffidence that one dissents from or condemns his interpretation of a difficult phrase or passage either in the Life or the Records.

The only other translation of the "Hsi yu chi" into a western language is the English version by the late Rev^d S. Beal. This was published in 1884 with the title "Buddhist Records of the Western World, Translated from the Chinese of Huen Tsiang (A. D. 629)." The title is characteristic of the translator, and the reader may compare it with that given by Julien to his translation. Mr. Beal's work is a translation partly "from the Chinese" and partly from the French. In it many of the careless mistakes which dis

figure Julien's treatise are corrected and its notes supply the student with numerous references to old and recent western authorities

Within the last few years the Preface to the Hsi-yu-chi attributed to Chang yueh, to be noticed presently, has attracted the attention of some western students of Chinese In the "Museum" for November 1894 there appeared an article by M. A. Gueluy entitled "A propos d'une Preface Aperçu critique sur le Bouddhisme en Chine au 7^e siècle" This article gives M. Gueluy's criticism on Julien's translation of the Preface and a new rendering by the critic One can scarcely treat M. Gueluy's production seriously, it is so full of fancies and fictions and shows such a slight acquaintance with Buddhism and the Chinese language.

Professor Schlegel however, took the "A propos d'une Preface" seriously and has given us a criticism of it together with a new translation of this Preface to the Hsi-yu-chi The Professor's treatise, which shows much industry and ingenuity, is entitled "La Loi du Parallelisme en style Chinois demontrée par la Preface du Si-yü ki" In this he defends some of Julien's translations against the criticism of M. Gueluy and shows how absurdly wrong is the latter's version M. Schlegel brings numerous quotations from Chinese books to support his own renderings of the difficult passages in the Preface Many of these renderings are apparently correct and an improvement on those by Julien, but in several instances the learned Professor seems to have missed the author's meaning His criticisms on M. Gueluy's "A propos d'une Preface" drew from M. Gueluy a reply which is not convincing it is entitled "L'Insuffisance du Parallelisme prouvée sur la Preface du Si-yü ki contre la traduction de M. G. Schlegel"

THE PILGRIM

The life of Yuan chuang is narrated at length in the book entitled "Ta T'ang Ta Tzû ên ssü San-tsang fa shih-chuan", that is "Record of the Tripitaka Master of the Great Compassion Monastery". It is this work of which Julien's "Histoire

de la Vie de Hiouen Thsang" is an abstract, and of which Mr Beal has given us a similar abstract in English. It is also the work usually cited in the following pages by the short title "the Life". From this and a few other Chinese treatises the following short summary of the ancestry and life of the pilgrim has been compiled.

The surname of the family to which he belonged was *Ch'en* (陳) and his personal name was *I* (師) ¹. But he seems never to have been known in history, literature, or religion, or among his contemporaries by any other name than that written 玄 (or 元) 奘 and read *Hsuan* (or *Yuan*)-*chuang* (oi *tsang*). In modern literature the character for *Yuan* is commonly used in writing the pilgrim's name, and this is said to be due to the character for *Hsuan* entering into the personal name of the Emperor Kanghsi. But we find *Yuan* in the pilgrim's name before the reign of Kanghsi and we find *Hsuan* in it during that reign and since. This interchange of the two characters is very common and is recognized. The personal name of the Chinese envoy Wang who went to India in *Yuan chuang*'s time is given as *Hsuan* (and *Yuan*) *tsê* (王玄 or 元策) and the name of another great contemporary of the pilgrim is written Fang *Hsuan ling* and Fang *Yuan ling* (房玄 or 元齡). The two characters at the T'ang period may have had the same sound, something like *Yun*, and our pilgrim's name was probably then pronounced *Yun-ts'ang*. This was his *hui* (諡) or "appellation", called in the *Life* also his *tsu* (字). This word *hui* is often used to denote the *Ia-hao* or "name in religion" of a Buddhist monk, and it is sometimes replaced by *tu* (度) *hui* or "ordination name". It commonly means simply "the name of the deceased" that is, the name given to him when capped,

¹ *Su kao seng chuan* 1 C. *Shen seng chuan* (No 1620) ch 6

² The Japanese write the name *Hsuan tsang* but call the pilgrim *Gen jo* corresponding to the Chinese *Yuan tsang*. In Tibetan books the name is given as *Tang Ssen tsang* or *Tang Sin* (or *Sang*), and *Ssen tsang* is, I think, for *Hsuan tsang* and not for *San tsang*.

and I do not know of any authority for Julien's rendering "nom d'enfance".

The family from which Yuan-chuang sprang is said to have been descended from the semi mythical Huang-Ti through the great Emperor Shun, and to have originally borne the territorial designation of Shun, viz *Kuei* (媿). In very early times the seat of the family was in the district now bearing the name *Kuei-tê* (歸德)-foo in the east of Honan, and it was afterwards removed for a time to the neighbourhood of the present Ts'ao chou in Shantung. At the time of Wu Wang, the first king of the Chow dynasty, a man known as *Hu-lung-kuei-man* (胡公媿滿) was regarded as the lineal representative of the Shun family.

This man was the son of *O fu* (睪父) of *Yu* (虞) who had served Wu Wang as his *T'ao-chêng* (陶正), an officer variously explained as Director of Potteries and as Superintendent of Schools. The office was apparently hereditary and Wu-Wang rewarded Man by giving him his eldest daughter in marriage while at the same time he ennobled him as *Hou* or Marquis, and endowed him with the fief of *Ch'ên* (陳) that he might be able to continue the services of worship to his ancestor Shun. These honours made Man one of the *San k'ê* (三恪) or "Three Reverends", that is, three who were faithfully diligent in the discharge of their public duties. The other *K'ê*s were according to some accounts the representatives of the ancient emperors Huang Ti and Yao, and according to other accounts the representatives of the founders of the Hsia and Yin dynasties.¹ Man's fief comprised the modern prefecture of Ch'ên chou in Honan together with the adjacent territory. It existed as a separate principality down to B. C. 478 when it was extinguished. The members of the reigning family were then dispersed but they retained Ch'ên as their surname.

¹ Tung-chih hao, the *Li* (禮) hao, ch. 3. These circumstances about Yuan chuang's reputed ancestors are mentioned here because they are alluded to in the Preface.

We have to come down to the end of the third century B C before we find a Chên of historical celebrity. We then meet with the famous Chên Ping (陳平) a native of Yang-wu (陽武) in the present Prefecture of K'ai-feng (開封) of Honan. In the time of the Han dynasty this Prefecture bore the name Chên-liu (陳留) and this explains why Yuan chuang is sometimes described as a Chên-liu man. His ancestor Ping was an eccentric genius who, rising from extreme poverty to wealth and power, founded a great family and made himself immortal in history. His success in life and his posthumous fame were mainly due to his ready wit which never left him without an answer, and to his ingenuity in devising expedients in desperate circumstances. Of these expedients six were counted extraordinary and successful above the others, and hence came the saying in his time *liu-ch'u chi-chu* (六出奇計) that is, "six times he brought out extraordinary plans." These were all employed on behalf of Liu Pang, the Han Kao Tsu of history. They were stratagems or expedients devised to meet special occasions, they were kept very secret and were all successful.

In the second century of our era we have another great man claimed as an ancestor of Yuan-chuang. This is Chên Shih (陳實) better known by his other name Chung-Kung (仲弓), a native of Hsu (許) a district corresponding to the present Hsu-chow-foo in Honan. At the time of the Han dynasty Hsu was in the political division called Ying-ch'uan (潁川) and hence we find Yuan chuang often described as a Ying-ch'uan man. This man Chên Shih was called to office and served in the reign of Han Huan Ti (A. D. 147 to 167). As an official Shih was pure and upright, attentive to business and zealous for the welfare of his people. Gentle but firm and kind but strict he won the affection, confidence and esteem of the people. His fame is chiefly associated with his administration of Tai-Ch'iu (太丘), now the Yung-ch'êng (永城) District in the Kwei-tê Prefecture of Honan. Here his personal influence was great and he made the people ashamed to do wrong. The

effects of his just decisions and benevolent government spread over all the country, and people flocked to him from surrounding districts. Resigning office, however, after a few years he retired to his native place. He was happy and successful also in his family, and sons and grandsons grew up before him to virtue and honour. His family was recognized to be a cluster of *Tê-shing* (德星) Stars of virtuous merit, and Heaven took notice of the fact and visibly responded. In later life Chung-kung refused to return to office and died at home in the year A. D. 187 in the 84th year of his age.¹

The next one that we have to notice in the line of descent is Ch'ên Ta (達) the sixth from Shih. Ta lived in the 4th century A. D. in the time of the Chin (晉) dynasty. He also was a learned man and an official of some distinction. Being appointed Magistrate of Ch'ang-ch'êng (長城) in the present Hu-chow (湖州) Foo of Chekiang he prophesied that his posterity would sit on the throne. This prediction was fulfilled in the year 556 when the tenth from Ta the illustrious Ch'ên Pa-hsien (霸先) established the Ch'ên dynasty. This branch of the family was settled in Hu-chow for more than 200 years, and it was not from it, apparently, that the immediate ancestors of our pilgrim were derived.

We now come to Yuan-chuang's great-grandfather whose name was Ch'in (欽). He was an official of the After Wei dynasty and served as Prefect of Shang-t'ang (上黨) in Shansi. The grand-father of our pilgrim, by name K'ang (康), being a man of distinguished learning in the Ch'i dynasty obtained the envied appointment of Professor in the National College at the capital. To this post were attached the revenues of the city of Chou-nan corresponding to the modern Lo-yang-hsien in Honan. The father of our pilgrim, by name Hui (慧), was a man of high character. He was a handsome tall man of stately manners, learned and intelligent, and a Confucianist of the strict

¹ Hou Han-shu, ch. 62.

old fashioned kind True to his principles he took office at the proper time, and still true to them he gave up office and withdrew into seclusion when anarchy supplanted order He then retired to the village Ch'in-p'ao-ku (陳堡谷) at a short distance south east from the town of Kou-shih (緱氏) This town was in the Lo chow, now Ho nan, Prefecture of Honan and not far from the site of the modern Yen-shih (偃師) Hsien Yuan-chuang is sometimes called a Kou-shih man and it was probably in his father's home near this town that he was born in the year 600

The family of Ch'in Hui was apparently a large one and Yuan-chuang was the youngest of four sons Together with his brothers he received his early education from his father, not of course, without the help of other teachers We find Yuan-chuang described as a rather precocious child shewing cleverness and wisdom in his very early years He became a boy of quick wit and good memory a lover of learning with intelligence to make a practical use of his learning It was noted that he cared little for the sports and games which had overpowering charms for other lads and that he liked to dwell much apart As a Confucianist he learned the Classical work on Filial Piety and the other canonical treatises of the orthodox system

But the second son of the family entered the Buddhist church and Yuan-chuang smitten with the love of the strange religion, followed his brother to the various monasteries at which the latter sojourned Then he resolved also to become a Buddhist monk, and proceeded to study the sacred books of the religion with all the fervour of a youthful proselyte When he arrived at the age of twenty he was ordained but he continued to wander about visiting various monasteries in different parts of the country Under the guidance of the learned Doctors in Buddhism in these establishments he studied some of the great works of their religion, and soon became famous in China as a very learned and eloquent young monk But he could not remain in China for he longed vehemently to visit the holy land of his religion, to see its far famed shrines, and all the visible

evidences of the Buddha's ministrations. He had learned, moreover, to be dissatisfied with the Chinese translations of the sacred books and he was desirous to procure these books in their original language, and to learn the true meaning of their abstruse doctrines from orthodox pundits in India. After making enquiries and preparations he left the capital Chang-an (長安), the modern Hsi-an (西安)-foo, in the year 629, and set out secretly on his long pilgrimage. The course of his wanderings and what he saw and heard and did are set forth in the Life and Records.

After sixteen year's absence Yuan chuang returned to China and arrived at Chang-an in the beginning of 645, the nineteenth year of the reign of Tang T'ai Tsung. And never in the history of China did Buddhist monk receive such a joyous ovation as that with which our pilgrim was welcomed. The Emperor and his Court, the officials and merchants and all the people made holiday. The streets were crowded with eager men and women who expressed their joy by gay banners and festive music. Nature, too, at least so it was fondly deemed, sympathised with her children that day and bade the pilgrim welcome. Not with thunders and lightnings did she greet him, but a solemn gladness filled the air and a happy flush was on the face of the sky. The pilgrim's old pine tree also by nods and waves whispered its glad recognition. This tree, on which Yuan chuang patted a sad adieu when setting out, had, obedient to his request, bent its head westward and kept it so while the pilgrim travelled in that direction. But when his face was turned to the east and the homeward journey was begun the old pine true to its friend also turned and bowed with all its weight of leaves and branches towards the east.¹ This was at once the first sign of welcome and the first intimation of the pilgrim having set out on his journey home. Now he had arrived whole and well, and had become a many days' wonder. He had been

¹ Fo-tsu tung chi (No. 1661), ch. 29

where no other had ever been he had seen and heard what no other had ever seen and heard. Alone he had crossed trackless wastes tenanted only by fierce ghost demons. Bravely he had climbed fabled mountains high beyond conjecture rugged and barren ever chilled by icy wind and cold with eternal snow. He had been to the edge of the world and had seen where all things end. Now he was safely back to his native land and with so great a quantity of precious treasures. There were 657 sacred books of Buddhism some of which were full of mystical charms able to put to flight the invisible powers of mischief. All these books were in strange Indian language and writing and were made of trimmed leaves of palm or of birch bark strung together in layers. Then there were lovely images of the Buddha and his saints in gold and silver and crystal and sandalwood. There were also many curious pictures and above all 150 relics true relics of the Buddha. All these relics were borne on twenty horses and escorted into the city with great pomp and ceremony.

The Emperor Tai Tsung forgave the pilgrim for going abroad without permission made his acquaintance and became his intimate friend. He received Yuan chuang in an inner chamber of the palace and there listened with unwearied interest from day to day to his stories about unknown lands and the wonders Buddha and his great disciples had wrought in them. The Emperor tried to persuade Yuan chuang that it was his duty to give up the religious life and to take office. But the heart of the pilgrim was fixed and as soon as he could he withdrew to a monastery and addressed himself to the work of translating into Chinese his Indian books. On his petition the Emperor appointed several distinguished lay scholars and several learned monks to assist in the labour of translating editing and copying. In the meantime at the request of his Sovereign Yuan chuang compiled the Records of his travels the *Hsi yü chi*. The first draft of this work was presented to the Emperor in 646 but the book as we have it now was not actually completed until 648. It was apparently copied and circulated

in *Ms* in its early form during the author's life and for some time after. When the *Hsi yü chü* was finished *Yuan chuang* gave himself up to the task of translating, a task which was to him one of love and duty combined. In his intervals of leisure he gave advice and instruction to the young brethren and did various kinds of acts of merit, leading a life calm and peaceful but far from idle. In the year 664 on the 6th day of the second month he underwent the great change. He had known that the change was coming, and had made ready for his departure. He had no fears and no regrets, content with the work of his life and joyous in the hope of hereafter he passed hence into Paradise. There he waits with *Maitreya* until in the fullness of time the latter comes into this world. With him *Yuan chuang* hoped to come back to a new life here and to do again the Buddha's work for the good of others.

In personal appearance *Yuan chuang*, like his father, was a tall handsome man with beautiful eyes and a good complexion. He had a serious but benevolent expression and a sedate and rather stately manner. His character as revealed to us in his *Life* and other books is interesting and attractive. He had a rare combination of moral and intellectual qualities and traits common to Chinese set off by a strongly marked individuality. We find him tender and affectionate to his parents and brothers, clinging to them in his youth and lovingly mindful of them in his old age. He was zealous and enthusiastic, painstaking and persevering but without any sense of humour and without any inventive genius. His capacity for work was very great and his craving for knowledge and love of learning were an absorbing passion. Too prone at times to follow authority and accept ready made conclusions he was yet self possessed and independent. A Confucianist by inheritance and early training, far seen in native lore and possessing good abilities he became an uncompromising Buddhist. Yet he never broke wholly with the native system which he learned from his father and early teachers. The splendours of India and the glories of its religion did not wealen

or shake his love for China and his admiration for its old ways of domestic social and political life. When he was more than sixty years of age he wished to pay the duty of filial piety at his parents' tombs. Unable to discover these he sought out his married sister M^{rs} Chang and by her help he found them. Then distressed at the bad state in which the tombs were at the time he obtained leave from the Emperor to have the remains of his parents transferred to a happy ground and reinterred with honourable burial. Though the man had long ago become a devoted son of Sālvamuni he still owned a loving duty to his earthly parents.

As a Buddhist monk Yuan chuang was very rigorous in keeping the rules of his order and strict in all the observances of his religion. But his creed was broad his piety never became ascetic and he was by nature tolerant. There were lengths however to which he could not go and even his powerful friend the Emperor T'ai Tsung could not induce him to translate Lao tzu's Tao Te Ching into Sanskrit or recognize Lao tzu as in rank above the Buddha. Modest and self-denying for himself Yuan chuang was always zealous for the dignity of his order and bold for the honour of its founder. He was brave to a marvel and faced without fear the unknown perils of the visible world and the unimagined terrors of unseen beings. Strong of will and resolute of purpose confident in himself and the mission on which he was engaged he also owned dependence on other and higher beings. He bowed in prayer and adoration to these and sued to them for help and protection in all times of despair and distress. His faith was simple and almost unquestioning and he had an aptitude for belief which has been called credulity. But his was not that credulity which lightly believes the impossible and accepts any statement merely because it is on record and suits the convictions or prejudices of the individual. Yuan chuang always wanted to have his own personal testimony the witness of his own senses or at least his personal experience. It is true his faith helped

his unbelief, and it was too easy to convince him where a Buddhist miracle was concerned. A hole in the ground without any natural history, a stain on a rock without any explanation apparent, any object held sacred by the old religion of the fathers, and any marvel professing to be substantiated by the narrator, was generally sufficient to drive away his doubts and bring comforting belief. But partly because our pilgrim was thus too ready to believe though partly also for other reasons, he did not make the best use of his opportunities. He was not a good observer, a careful investigator, or a satisfactory recorder, and consequently he left very much untold which he would have done well to tell.

We must remember, however, that Yuan chuang in his travels cared little for other things and wanted to know only Buddha and Buddhism. His perfect faith in these, his devotion to them and his enthusiasm for them were remarkable to his contemporaries, but to us they are still more extraordinary. For the Buddhism to which Yuan chuang adhered, the system which he studied, revered, and propagated, differed very much from the religion taught by Gautama Buddha. That knew little or nothing of Yoga and powerful magical formulae used with solemn invocations. It was not on Prajnapāramita and the abstract subtleties of a vague and fruitless philosophy, nor on dream lands of delight beyond the tomb, nor on Powers like Kuan-shi-yin who supplant the Buddhas that the great founder of the religion preached and discoursed to his disciples. But Yuan chuang apparently saw no inconsistency in believing in these while holding to the simple original system. Yet he regarded those monks who adhered entirely to the "Small Vehicle" as wrong in doctrine and practice, and he tried to convert such to his own belief wherever he met them or came into correspondence with them.

After Yuan chuang's death great and marvellous things were said of him. His body, it was believed, did not see corruption and he appeared to some of his disciples in visions of the night. In his lifetime he had been called a "Present

Sākyamuni and when he was gone his followers raised him to the rank of a founder of Schools or Sects in Buddhism. In one treatise we find the establishment of three of these schools ascribed to him and in another work he is given as the founder in China of a fourth school. This last is said to have been originated in India at Nalanda by Śīlabhadra one of the great Buddhist monks there with whom Yuan chuang studied.¹

In some Buddhist temples we find images of our pilgrim to which a minor degree of worship is occasionally offered. These images usually represent the pilgrim seated clothed in his monk's robes and capped with his right hand raised and holding his alms bowl in his left.

THE PREFACES TO THE HSI YU CHI

There is only one Preface in the A B and C editions of the "Hsi yu chi" but the D edition gives two Prefaces. The second of these is common to all while the first is apparently only in D and the Corean edition. This latter was apparently unknown to native editors and it was unknown to the foreign translators. This Preface is the work of Ching Po (敬播) a scholar author and official of the reigns of Tang Kao Tsu and Tai Tsung. Ching Po was well read in the history of his country and was in his lifetime an authority on subjects connected therewith. He was the chief compiler and redactor of the "Chun Shu (春秋)" an important treatise which bears on its title-page the name of Tang Tai Tsung as author. Ching Po's name is also associated with other historical works and notably with two which give an official account of the rise of the Tang dynasty and of the great events which marked the early years of Tai Tsung. It is plain from this Preface that its author was an intimate friend

¹ Chen ming mu tu (真名目圖) last page. Fo tsu tung chi. I.e. where Yuan chuang is the founder of the Tzu an tsung (禪門宗) in China, and this is the Fa hsang (法相)-tsung of the San kuo fa chuan (三國法傳) and other works. See also Mr. Bunyiu Nanjō's "Short History of the Twelve Buddhist Sects" p. 33.

of Yuan-chuang whose name he does not think it necessary to mention. He seems to have known or regarded Yuan-chuang as the sole author of the "Hsi-yü-chi", writing of him thus:—"he thought it no toil to reduce to order the notes which he had written down". Ching Po must have written this Preface before 649, as in that year he was sent away from the capital to a provincial appointment and died on the way. The praises which he gives Yuan-chuang and their common master, the Emperor, are very liberal, and he knew them both well.

The second Preface, which is in all editions except the Korean, is generally represented as having been written by one Chang Yüeh (張說). It has been translated fairly well by Julien, who has added numerous notes to explain the text and justify his renderings. He must have studied the Preface with great care and spent very many hours in his attempt to elucidate its obscurities. Yet it does not seem to have occurred to him to learn who Chang Yüeh was and when he lived.

Now the Chang Yüeh who bore the titles found at the head of the Preface above the name was born in 667 and died in 730, thus living in the reigns of Kao Tsung, Chung Tsung, Jui Tsung, and Hsüan Tsung. He is known in Chinese literature and history as a scholar, author, and official of good character and abilities. His Poems and Essays, especially the latter, have always been regarded as models of style, but they are not well known at present. In 689 Chang Yüeh became qualified for the public service, and soon afterwards he obtained an appointment at the court of the Empress Wu Hou. But he did not prove acceptable to that ambitious, cruel and vindictive sovereign, and in 703 he was sent away to the Ling-nan Tao (the modern Kuangtung). Soon afterwards, however, he was recalled and again appointed to office at the capital. He served Hsüan Huang (Ming Huang) with acceptance, rising to high position and being ennobled as Yen kuo kung (燕國公).

Now if, bearing in mind the facts of Chang Yüeh's

birth and career, we read with attention the Preface which bears his name we cannot fail to see that it could not have been composed by that official. Passing by other arguments, let us take the following statement in the Preface—"the reigning sovereign when he apparent composed the 'Shu shing chi' (書經), or Memoir on the transmission of Buddhism, in 579 words" Now the sovereign who wrote the 'Shu shing chi' was, as we know from the Seventh Book of the Life and other sources, Kao Tsung. That Emperor died in 683 when Chang Yüeh was only sixteen years of age and the Preface must have been written before that date. So, according to the Chinese authorities and their translators Julien and Professor G. Schlegel, it was a schoolboy who composed this wonderful Preface, this '*morceau qui offre un specimen bien caractérise de ces cloques pompeux et vides, et presente par consequent les plus grandes difficultés, non seulement à un traducteur de l'Occident, mais encore à tout lettré Chinois qui ne connaîtrait que les idées et la langue de l'école de Confucius*'" We may pronounce this impossible as the *morceau* is evidently the work of a ripe scholar well read not only in Confucianism but also in Buddhism. Moreover the writer was apparently not only a contemporary but also a very intimate friend of Yuan chuang. Who then was the author?

In the A and C editions and in the old texts Chang Yüeh's name does not appear on the title page to this Preface. It is said to have been added by the editors of the Ming period when revising the Canon. Formerly there stood at the head of the Preface only the titles and rank of its author. We must now find a man who bore these titles in the Kao Tsung period, 650 to 683, and who was at the same time a scholar and author of distinction and a friend of the pilgrim. And precisely such a man we find in Yu Chih ning (于志寧), one of the brilliant scholars and statesmen who shed a glory on the reigns of the early Tang sovereigns. Yu was a good and faithful servant to Tai Tsung who held him in high esteem

and took his counsel even when it was not very palatable. On the death of Tai Tsung his son and successor Kao Tsung retained Yu in favour at Court and rewarded him with well earned honours. In 656 the Emperor appointed Yu along with some other high officials to help in the redaction of the translations which Yuan chuang was then making from the Sanskrit books. Now about this time Yu, as we know from a letter addressed to him by Hui-li and from other sources, bore the titles which appear at the head of the Preface. He was also an Immortal of the Academy, a Wen kuan Hsuo shǐ (文館學士). He was one of the scholars who had been appointed to compile the "Sui Shu" or Records of the Sui dynasty and his miscellaneous writings form forty *chuan*. Yu was probably a fellow labourer with Yuan chuang until the year 660. At that date the concubine of many charms had become all-powerful in the palace and she was the unscrupulous foe of all who even seemed to block her progress. Among these was Yu who, accordingly, was this year sent away into official exile and apparently never returned.

We need have little hesitation then in setting down Yu Chih ning as the author of this Preface. It was undoubtedly written while Yuan chuang was alive, and no one except an intimate friend of Yuan chuang could have learned all the circumstances about him, his genealogy and his intimacy with the sovereign mentioned or alluded to in the Preface. We need not suppose that this elegant composition was designed by its author to serve as a Preface to the Hsi-yü chü. It was probably written as an independent eulogy of Yuan chuang setting forth his praises as a man of old family, a record beating traveller, a zealous Buddhist monk of great learning and extraordinary abilities, and a propagator of Buddhism by translations from the Sanskrit.¹

This Preface, according to all the translators, tells us

¹ *Life ch* 8 *Ku chün : ching t'u chü* (No 1487) last page. Post script to *Yü* s "Cheng wei chih lun" (No 119) where Yu Chih ning is styled as in the heading to the Preface.

that the pilgrim acting under Imperial orders translated 657 Sanskrit books, that is, all the Sanskrit books which he had brought home with him from the Western Lands. No one seems to have pointed out that this was an utterly impossible feat, and that Yuan chuang did not attempt to do anything of the kind. The number of Sanskrit texts which he translated was seventy four, and these seventy four treatises (*pu*) made in all 1335 *chuan*. To accomplish this within seventeen years was a very great work for a delicate man with various calls on his time.¹

The translations made by Yuan chuang are generally represented on the title page as having been made by Imperial order and the title page of the Hsi yü chi has the same intimation. We know also from the Life that it was at the special request of the Emperor Tai Tsung that Yuan chuang composed the latter treatise. So we should probably understand the passage in the Preface with which we are now concerned as intended to convey the following information. The pilgrim received Imperial orders to translate the 657 Sanskrit treatises, and to make the Ta Tsang Hsi yü chi in twelve *chuan*, giving his personal observation of the strange manners and customs of remote and isolated regions, their products and social arrangements, and the places to which the Chinese Calendar and the civilising influences of China reached.²

Then the number 657 given here and in other places as the total of the Sanskrit treatises (*pu*) does not agree with the items detailed in the various editions of the Life and the A, B, and D texts of the Records. In the C text of the Records however the items make up this total. They are as follows —

¹ See Life ch 10. Julien's translation of this passage cannot be used. B Nanpo's Catalogue p 430. Mr Nanpo makes the total 75 but he counts the *Chin lang-ching* twice.

² See Life ch 6. The term here rendered "civilizing influences of China" is *sheng chiao* (聖教). This term is often used by Buddhist writers as a synonym for "Buddhist religion".

Mahāyānist sūtras	224	pu
Mahāyānist śāstras	192	"
Sthavira sutras, śāstras and Vinaya	14	"
Mahāsaṅgika " " "	15	"
Mahisāsaka " " "	22	"
Sammitiya " " "	15	"
Kāśyapiya " " "	17	"
Dharmagupta sutras, Vinaya, śāstras	42	"
Sarvāstivādin " " "	67	"
Yin-lun (Treatises on the science of Inference)	36	"
Shêng-lun (Etymological treatises)	13	"
	<hr/> 657 pu	

CHAPTER II.

THE INTRODUCTION.

AT the beginning of *Chuan* I of the Records we have a long passage which, following Julien, we may call the Introduction. In a note Julien tells us that "survant les editeurs du *Pien-t-tien*, cette Introduction a ete composee par *Tschang-choue* (i. e. Chang Yue), auteur de la preface du *Si-yu-ki*". Another native writer ascribes the composition of this Introduction to Pien-chi. But a careful reading of the text shews us that it could not have been written by either of these and that it must be regarded as the work of the pilgrim himself. This Introduction may possibly be the missing Preface written by Yuan-chuang according to a native authority.

The Introduction begins—"By going back over the measures of the [Three] *Huang* and examining from this distance of time the records of the [Five] *Ti* we learn the beginnings of the reigns of Pao-hsi (Fu hsi) and Hsien-Yuan (Huang Ti) by whom the people were brought under civil government and the country was marked off into natural divisions. And [we learn how] Yao of Tang receiving astronomical knowledge (lit. "Celestial revolutions") his light spread everywhere, and how Shun of Yu being entrusted with the earthly arrangements his excellent influences extended to all the empire. From these down only the archives of recorded events have been transmitted. To hear of the virtuous in a far off past, to merely learn from word-recording historians—what are these compared with the seasonable meeting with a time of ideal government and the good fortune living under a sovereign who reigns without ruling?"

The original of the last two sentences of this passage is rendered by Julien thus. "Depuis cette époque (i. e., the

time of Yao and Shun) jusqu'à nos jours cest en vain qu'on consulte les annales ou sont consignés les événements, que l'on écoute les opinions émises des anciens sages que l'on interroge les historiens qui recueillaient les paroles memorables. Il en est bien autrement lorsqu'on vit sous une dynastie vertueuse et qu'on est soumis à un prince qui pratique le *non agir*." The text is here given, 自茲已降空傳書事之冊退聽前修往聞記之史豈若斯廷有道運屈無爲者歟 and it will be seen that Julien's translation is hasty and inaccurate and that it does an injustice to the author. No Chinese scholar, Buddhist or Confucianist, would ever write in this disparaging way of the books of national history including the "Springs and Autumns" of Confucius, the commentaries on that treatise, and later works. What our author here states to his reader is to this effect. In the records of the very early times we find the institution of government officials to guide and teach the people (司牧黎元), the first mapping out of the empire into natural divisions with corresponding star clusters (疆土分星子), the adaptation of astronomical learning to practical uses, and the first systematic reclamation of land and distribution of the country into political divisions. These great and beneficial achievements of the early sovereigns are mentioned only with the view of comparing the Emperor on the throne with these glorified remote predecessors. From the time of Yao and Shun down according to our author, the annals of the empire contained only dry records of ordinary events.

All this is only the prelude to the generous panegyric which our author proceeds to lavish on the Tang dynasty or rather on the sovereign reigning at the time, viz Tai Tsung. A rough and tentative translation of this eulogy is now given and the reader can compare it with Julien's version.

"As to our great Tang dynasty, it assumed empire in accor

* The term here rendered "assumed empire" is *yu chü* (御極) which J translates by 'gouverne'. But the context seems to show

dance with Heaven and taking advantage of the times it concentrated power to itself [His Majesty] has made the six units of countries into one empire and thus his glory fills he is a fourth to the Three *Huang* and his light illumines the world His subtle influence permeates widely and his auspicious example has a far reaching stimulus Combining Heaven's covering with Earth's containing powers he unites in himself the rousing force of wind and the refreshing action of rain As to Eastern barbarians bringing tribute and "Western barbarians submitting themselves" in founding an imperial inheritance for his posterity² in bringing order out of chaos and restoring settled government³ he certainly surpasses former kings and sums up in himself all that previous dynasties had attained That there is a uniformity of culture⁴ over all the empire is the marvellous

that the term is to be taken here as commonly in the sense of "begin to reign" "accede to empire" Thus the phrase *sheng tien t'u y ch'yi lai* means "since His Majesty ascended the throne"

¹ This is a quotation from the *Yu Kung* of the *Shu Ching* where it is used of the western tribes submitting to the regulations of the emperor *Yu* The *Hsi Jung* or "western barbarians" of this passage are described as Tibetan tribes living in the neighbourhood of the *koko Nor*

² The text is *Chuang yü ch'ü tung* (創 宇 建 統) This is a stock phrase of Chinese literature and occurs for example in the 17th *ch* of the *Shih Chi* as a popular quotation It or a part of it is often used of *Tang Kao Tsu* and his successor although properly it applies only to the former One writer amplifies the meaning of the expression thus—"Kao Tsu laid the foundation (創 基) and established the patrimony (建 宇) and *Tai Tsung* enlarged and gave peace to the empire (*Ta Tang wen tien lu ch* 6 Bun No 1480)

³ The original is *po lun fan-ch'eng* (撥 亂 反 正) Here the word *po* we are told is to be taken in the sense of *regulate* or *reduce to order*, and *ch'eng* denotes *settled government* The phrase is applied to the *Chun Chiu* of Confucius by *Kung yang* at the end of his commentary on that classic It occurs also in the *Han Shu* (ch 22) where the commentator explains it as meaning "to exterminate disorder and restore a right state of affairs One of *Tai Tsung's* Ministers is represented as applying the phrase to that emperor in a conversation with him saying to His Majesty that "in bringing order out of anarchy and restoring good government (*po lun fan-ch'eng*) and in raising men from mud and ashes he had far transcended the achievements of the founders of the *Chou* and *Han* dynasties"

⁴ The Chinese is *tung wen kung hui* (同 文 共 軌) which means to "have the same writing and go in the same rut" There is

result of his perfect government. If I did not mention them in these Records I should not have wherewith to praise his great institutions and if I did not publish them abroad I could not shed light on his abundant merits.

In my mention of the natural characteristics of the people in any place which I visited though I did not investigate local peculiarities of custom yet I am to be believed. Beyond the Five [*Ti*] and the Three [*Huang*] (or, according to another interpretation, "In more than three fifths of the places I traversed") all living creatures feel the genial influence [of H M's reign] and every human being extols his merit. From Chang an to India the strange tribes of the sombre wastes, isolated lands and odd states, all accept the Chinese calendar and enjoy the benefits of H M's fame and teaching. The praise of his great achievements in war is in everybody's mouth and the commendation of his abundant civil virtues has grown to be the highest theme. Examine the public records and they have no mention of anything like this, and I am of opinion that there is no similar instance in private genealogies. Were there not the facts here set forth I could not record the beneficial influences of His Majesty. The narrative which I have now composed is based on what I saw and heard."

大唐御極則天聖時握紀一六合而尤宅四三皇而
照臨玄化滂流祥風遐扇同軌坤之覆載齊國而之
鼓潤與夫東夷八貢西戎卽敘創業垂祚撥亂友正
固以跨越前王囊括先代同文共軌至治神功非載
記無以贊大猷非昭宣何以光盛業玄奘輒隨遊至
鼎其國土雖末考方辨俗仁已越五跡三舍生之偉
咸綴凱澤能言之類莫不稱功越自天府暨諸天竺
幽崇異俗絕域殊邦咸承正朔俱沾聲教&c

This is an address well spiced with flattery in good oriental fashion. We may perhaps regard it as a sort of Dedication to the pilgrim's great friend and patron, the

apparently a reference to Ch 6 of the "Chung yung" where we read, in Legge's translation—"Now, over the empire, carriages have all wheels of the same size all writing is with the same characters, and for conduct there are the same rules" (*Life and Teachings of Confucius* p. 312). So also of the uniformity which Ch'in Shih Huang T'i produced it was said *Ch ê tung kuei-shu tung iên tzu* (車同軌書同文字) "carriages went in the same ruts and books were in one writing" (Shih chi ch. 6).

* The pilgrim's report of his Imperial Master's fame in India will be illustrated when we come to *chüan* 5 and 10 of the Records.

second Emperor of the Tang dynasty. For though, as has been seen, the writer uses the term *Ta Tang*, yet the context shows he had in his mind only, or chiefly, *Tai Tsung*. The founder of the Tang dynasty, it should be remembered, was neither a hero nor a man of extraordinary genius and he came near being a prig and a hypocrite. His loyalty and honour were questioned in his lifetime, and history has given him several black marks. While sick of ambition he was infirm of purpose, and wishing to do right he was easily swayed to do what was wrong. He had undoubted abilities, a happy knack of turning events to his advantage and a plausible manner with friends and foes. But all his success in later life, and the fame of his reign were largely due to the son who succeeded him on the throne. This son *Tai Tsung* meets us several times in the pilgrims' wanderings, and it will help us to understand and appreciate the passage now before us and the references to him in other parts of the work, if we recall some particulars of his life and character.

The Li family, from which the founder of the Tang dynasty sprang, claimed to have a long and illustrious line of ancestors, many of whom had deserved well of the State. The founder himself, whose name was *Yuan* (袁 詡), was born at *Chung-an* and was related to the family of the reigning dynasty, the *Sui*. He was a hereditary nobleman with the title *Tang Kung*, and he served with distinction under *Sui Yang Ti* (601 to 616). But that despot could not brook *Yuan* who was gaining favour with army and people and he tried to get rid of him.

At this time the two eldest sons of *Li Yuan* were also in the public service and it is with the younger of these that we are now concerned. This boy, who seems to have been extraordinary from a very early stage of his life, was born in the year 597. When he was four years of age a mysterious stranger, dressed like a professional scholar, came one day to *Li Yuan's* house. Professing to be able to read fortunes, this stranger recognised *Yuan* as destined

to greatness. Then taking the little child he read fate's characters in his face, and predicted that the child would rise to power and that he would "save the age and give peace to the people"—*Chi shih an min* (濟世安民). The father, perhaps finding the prophecy jump with his thoughts, and wishing to prick lagging destiny, gave to his son a name, Shih min which recalled the prediction.

But fate made no delay, and Li Shih min while only a boy, on the summons of Sui Yang Ti, entered the public service as a military officer. He soon found, however, that to propagate a tottering dynasty was not his destined work. The whole country, moreover, was now in a dreadful state of violence and disorder. Hydra headed rebellion wasted the land, and the monster who sat on the throne was hated and rejected even by his own kindred. The districts of the Empire which marched with the lands of the barbarians were the prey of these ruthless savages who again and again swooping with harpy flight on town and country, made life in such places impossible. But when the people fled thence into the central parts of the Empire, they found neither peace nor safety, for the line of confusion and the plummet of stones were stretched out in the land. Over all the country, life and property were at the mercy of powerful rebels and bands of marauders and murderers. The good found safety in flight or concealment, and only the lawless and violent prevailed. So Li Shih min, like others, saw that the Decree had passed and that the collapse of the Sui dynasty was imminent. He now resolved to help those who wished to hasten that event, and joined the conspiracy which succeeded in effecting the dethronement of Yang Ti. Then Shih min's father, Li Yuan, became Emperor in 618 to the satisfaction of most, and the Empire began to have peace again. It was Shih min who placed his father on the throne and won the Empire for him. During all Kao Tsu's reign, also, Shih min took a very active and prominent part in public affairs. He fought many hard battles, and won great and splendid victories, thereby extending and consolidating the newly-

won Empire For he was wise and daring in counsel and brave and skilful in battle He was much beloved by his father who rewarded his services with many honours Among these was the title *Ch'in* (秦) Wang, Prince of Ch'in, a title by which he is still remembered In 626 Kao Tsu resigned, appointing Shih-min his successor The latter, the T'ang T'ai Tsung of history, mounted the throne with apparent reluctance but with eager delight and earnest purpose, and he reigned "with unrivalled splendour" until his death in 649

This reign is perhaps the most celebrated in all the history of China, and T'ai Tsung is still regarded as one of her greatest and wisest rulers From the moment he mounted the throne, he set himself to govern the people for their welfare, and began by enabling them to live in confidence and security No ruler before ever wove so quickly and deftly into a fair web of peace and order such tangled threads of wild lawlessness. Only four years had he been in power, when over all the country the people had returned to settled lives, and the fame of his greatness and goodness had brought back hope and happiness He crushed internal rebellion and reduced all parts of the Empire to his sway. He broke the power of the hereditary foes of China on her frontiers and made them willing and appreciative vassals He introduced a new and improved distribution of the Empire into Provinces, each of these again divided and sub-divided to suit natural or artificial requirements In the civil list he inaugurated great reforms, and he succeeded in calling into active service for the State some of the best men China has produced. His ministers, native historians tell us, administered the government with combined ability and honesty, such as had never been known before In the military organisation also he made improvements, and above all he reformed the penal code and the administration of justice, tempering its severity. Learning of all kinds was fostered and promoted by him with an intelligent earnestness and a personal sympathy. He knew himself how to write and

he made some permanent contributions to the native literature. In astronomy he made reforms and he tried to restore that science and astrology to their high estate, that is, as branches of practical learning. Solicitous above all things for the welfare of his people, he set them an example of plain living and frugality. His influence was immense, and his fame and character were known not only over all the Empire but also in countries far beyond its limits. He had an impulsive affectionate disposition, and his loving services to his father and mother are household stories. He was also social and genial in his intercourse with his statesmen, whose criticism he invited and whose censures he accepted.

The splendour of T'ai Tsung's great achievements, the conspicuous merits of his administration, and the charm of his sociable affable manner made the people of his time forget his faults. Even long after his death, when the story of his life came to be told, the spell was in the dull dry records, and passed over him who wrought those into history. So it came that the historian, dazed by the spell and not seeing clearly, left untold some of the Emperor's misdeeds and told others without adding their due meed of blame. For this great ruler smatched his fair record by such crimes as murder and adultery. The shooting of his brothers was excusable and even justifiable, but his other murders admit of little palliation and cannot plead necessity. Though he yielded to his good impulses, again, in releasing thousands of women who had been forced into and kept in the harem of Sui Yang Ti, yet he also yielded to his bad impulses when he took his brother's widow and afterwards that maid of fourteen, Wu Chao, into his own harem. His love of wine and women in early life, his passion for war and his love of glory and empire, which possessed him to the end, were failings of which the eyes of contemporaries dazzled by the "fierce light" could not take notice.

But when the crimes and failings of T'ai Tsung are all told, they still leave him a great man and a ruler of rare

excellence His genius gave life to all his laws and institutions, and his personal influence was felt in every department of government. Nor was it until long after his death that it was found how much the good reforms he made owed to his personal presence and action. Happy in the character he bore among contemporaries, he became still greater with their successors, and there is almost a perfect unanimity of consent to count him great and good. Indeed the native panegyrists generally write of him as above all who preceded him, except those semi-mythical sovereigns who moulded man from the brute. The Chinese youth and patriots love and praise Tai Tsung for the great feats he achieved in battle and his hard won victories which restored the country to its old splendour and supremacy. The native student praises him for the success he had in preserving the valuable literature then extant but in danger of being lost, and for the great encouragement he gave to learning. The Buddhist praises him for the patronage he extended to his religion, and the friendly interest he took in its affairs. The Taoist praises him for his exaltation of that dim personage, a reputed ancestor of the Emperor, the fore-father of Taoism. Even the western Christian joins the chorus of praise, and to him the "virtuous Tai Tsung" is a prince nearly perfect ("Princeps omnibus fere numeris absolutus"). It was during the reign of this sovereign, in the year 636, that Christianity was first introduced into China. The Nestorian missionaries, who brought it, were allowed to settle in peace and safety at the capital. This was the boon which called forth the gratitude of the Christian historian and enhanced in his view the merits of the heathen sovereign.

The author next proceeds to give a short summary of the Buddhistic teachings about this world and the system of which it forms a constituent. He begins—

"Now the Saha world the Three Thousand Great Chihocsm, is the sphere of the spiritual influence of one Buddha. It is in the four continents (lit. 'Under heavens') now illuminated by one sun and moon and within the Three Thousand Great Chihocsm that the Buddhas, the World honoured ones, produce their

spiritual effects *are visibly born and visibly enter Nirvāṇa* teach the way to saint and sinner

For the words in italics the original is *hsien shêng hsien-mie* (現生現滅) which Julien renders "tantôt ils apparaissent tantôt ils s'éteignent" This does not seem to express the author's meaning and is not quite correct. All the Buddhas, the writer tells us, exercise their spiritual sovereignty ("send down their transforming influence") in one or other of the four great divisions of the habitable world, in one of these each Buddha becomes incarnate as a man, teaches saints and common people, and passes into Nirvāṇa.

Our author proceeds—

"In the ocean resting on a gold disk is the mountain Sumeru composed of four precious substances along its middle the sun and moon revolve and on it the Devas sojourn."

The phrase for "revolve along its middle" is *hui-po* (回) (or 迴) 轉 (or 泊). Here the word *po* in the first form does not seem to have any appropriate meaning, and the second form which means "to stop" or "anchor" is also unsatisfactory. From a paraphrase of the passage, however, we learn the meaning of the phrase, the words of the paraphrase being "the sun and moon revolve along its waist" (日月迴薄於其腰). The word *po* in this sense of "wasting" a hull is still used in the colloquial of some parts of China, but there does not seem to be any certain character to represent it in writing. In some books we find the word written 泊 *po*, as by Fa hsien, for example. Instead of *hui-po* in the above passage the D text has *Chao-hui* (照回), "to illuminate in revolving", a reading which agrees with statements about Sumeru in other Buddhist writings.

Around the Sumeru Mountain our author continues are seven mountains and seven seas and the water of the seas between the mountains has the "eight virtues" outside the seven Gold

¹ In the *Fo shuo li shih a 1 : tan lun ch 1* (No 1297) the sun and moon are described as making their revolutions at a height of 40000 *yojanas* above the earth and half way up Mount Sumeru and a similar statement is made in the *Yu ka shih ti lun ch 2* (No 1170).

Mountains is the Salt Sea. In the sea (or ocean) there are, speaking summarily, four habitable Islands: viz *Pi-ti-ta* Island in the east, *Chan-pu* Island in the south, *Ku-to-ni* in the west and *Kou-lo* Island in the north. The influence of a Gold wheel king extends over these four Islands; a Silver wheel king rules over all except the north one; a Copper wheel king rules over the South and East Islands; and an Iron wheel king bears sway only over *Chan-pu* Island. When a "Wheel king" is about to arise a gold, silver, copper, or iron wheel, according to the Karma of the man, appears for him in the air and gives him his title while indicating the extent of his dominion.

In the centre of *Chan-pu* Island (*Jambudvīpa*), south of the Perfume Mountain and north of the Great Snow Mountain is the *Ana-pa-ta-to* (अनावतार) Lake about 800 *li* in circuit. Its banks are adorned with gold, silver, lapis lazuli and crystal; all its sand are golden and it is pure and clear. The pure *Ta-ti* (Great land) having by the force of his prayer become a dragon king lives in the depths of the Lake and sends forth its pure cold water for *Jambudvīpa*. Thus from the silver east side through the Ox Mouth flows the Ganges which after going once round the Lake flows into the south east sea; from its gold south side through the Elephant Mouth flows the *Sin-tu* (Indus) which after flowing round the Lake enters the south west sea; from the lapis lazuli west side through the Horse Mouth the *To-chu* (Oxus) flows passing round the Lake and then on into the north west sea; from the crystal north side through the Lion Mouth flows the *Si-to* (Sita) river which goes round the Lake and then on the north east sea. Another theory is that the *Sita* flows underground until it emerges at the *Chi-shih* ("Heaped up stones") Mountain and that it is the source of the [Yellow] River of China.

The seven mountains here represented as surrounding Sumeru are supposed to form seven concentric circles with seas separating them. These seven rows of mountains are golden, and we read in other accounts of the Buddhist cosmogony of seven circles of iron mountains surrounding the habitable world.

The names of the four great Islands of this passage are not all known as divisions of the world to orthodox Indian writers, but they are found in Buddhist treatises. Our pilgrim calls the first *chou* or *Dvīpa* (Island) *Pi-ti-ta* restored as *Videha*. This name is properly used to designate a particular district in India corresponding to

the modern Tirhut in Behar. But here it is the Purva-Videha, (in Palī Pubbavideho), the Eastern Continent or great Island of Buddhist cosmogony. Our pilgrim in his translation of a *sūtra* renders the word Videha by *Shing-shen* (勝身) or "Superior body", and the Tibetan rendering is *Lus-hyugs* with a similar meaning. But the old transcriptions for the name of the East Island as given in a note to our text are *Fu p'o ti* (弗婆提) and *Fu yi ti* (弗于提) which seem to point to an original like Pubbadik or "East Region". It is the *Fu-p'o ti* of this note which is given as the name in the "Fo shuo ch'u chia-kung-t'ê ching" translated in the 4th century A. D. (No 776).

The second dvīpa is *Chan pu*, Jambu, as in most other works. But the character read *Chan* should perhaps be read *Yen*, and this would agree with the other transcriptions given in the note, viz. *Yen-fou ti* (閼浮提) and *Yen* (閼) *fou*, the former appearing in the *sūtra* just quoted.

Our pilgrim in the *sūtra* referred to translates his *Ku t'o-ni*, the name of the West Island, by *Niu huo* or "Cattle goods", that is, cattle used as a medium of exchange. The name has been restored as Godhāna or Godhanya, the Gaudana of the Lalitavistara, but Godhāni or Godani would be nearer the transcription. Other names given by the annotator are *Ku yi(ya) ni* and *Kou-ha-ni*, the former of these appears in the old *sūtra* already quoted, and it agrees with the Palī form *Apāra goyāni*.

The North Island is the Kurudvīpa, the Uttara-Kuru of other writers. It is also the *Yü tan yueh* (悅) of the *sūtra* already quoted and of many other Buddhist texts. Thus *Yü tan yueh* may perhaps represent a word like Uttamavat.¹

The *Ana-p'o ta to* (Anavatapta) Lake is here, we have seen, described as being in the middle of Jambudvīpa to the south of the Perfume (that is Fragrance intoxicating or Gandhamadana) Mountain, and north of the Great

¹ See Yuan chuang's *A pi ta mo tsang hsien lun ch* 16 (Bun No 1266) and his *A pi ta mo ku she lun ch* 11 (No 1267). Chang a *han ching ch 18 (No 545). For the four Wheel kings see Yuan chuang's *A pi ta mo-shun ching li lun ch* 32 (No 1265).

Snow (Himavat) Mountain This is the situation ascribed to the Lake in certain śāstras, but in the *Chang-a-han-ching* and some other authorities it is on the summit of the Great Snow Mountain In a note to our text we are told that the Chinese translation of the name is *Wū-jê nao* (無劫惱) or "Without heat trouble" This is the rendering used by Yuan chuang in his translations and it is the term commonly employed by Chinese writers and translators but the word *Anavatapta* means simply "unheated" It is said to have been the name of the Dragon-king of the Lake and to have been given to him because he was exempt from the fiery heat, the violent storms, and the fear of the garudas which plagued other dragons¹ Our pilgrim's statement that the Ganges Indus, Oxus, and Sitī (or Sita) all have their origin in this Lake is found in several Buddhist scriptures one of these as translated by Yuan-chuang used the very words of our passage,² but in two of them there are differences as to the directions in which the rivers proceed³ Nagasena speaks of the water of this Lake, which he calls *Anotatta dāha*, as flowing into the Ganges⁴ In the early Chinese versions of Buddhist works the name is given, as in the note to our text, *A nu-ta* (阿耨達) which evidently represents the Pali form *Anotatta* Then the pilgrim mentions a supposition that the Sitī had a subterranean course for a distance and that where it emerged, at the *Chi shih* (積石) "Accumulated-rocks" Mountain, it was the source of the Yellow River The *Chi shih shan* of this theory is the *Chi shih* of the *Yu-kung* chapter of the *Shu Ching* This *Chi shih* was the place at which, according to some, the Yellow River had its source and it was a district in what is now the western part of Kansuh Province But the term *Chi shih* is also used in the sense of "mountain" as a synonym of *shan*

¹ *Chang a han ching* 1 c

² *Abhi ta vib ch* 5 (No 1263) See also Nos 1266, 1267 1 c

³ *Chang a han ching* 1 c *Hsin ti kuan ching ch* 4 (No 905)
Abhi vib lun ch 2 (No 1264)

⁴ *Milinda paṇḍita* ed Tienckner 1 286

It has been stated by some western writers that our pilgrim confuses the Anavatapta Lake with the Sarikul of the Pamirs, but this is not correct. Some other Chinese writers seem to make this mistake but Yüan chuang does not. Then the Anavatapta Lake has been identified with the Manasarowar Lake of Tibet, but this cannot be accepted. We must regard the 'Unheated' Lake as a thing of fury land as in the Earthly Paradise or Garden of Eden. It is expressly stated that the Lake could be reached only by those who had supernatural powers, the faculty of transporting themselves at will by magic.¹ The Buddha and his arhats visited it on several occasions passing through the air from India to it in the twinkling of an eye or the raising of an arm and down to the time of Asoka great Buddhist saints came to lodge on its banks.² Here was that wonderful incense the burning of which yielded a wide spreading perfume which released all the world from the consequences of sin.³ Here too was a goodly palace, and all about were strange trees and flowers through which breathed fragrant airs and birds with plaintive songs made harmony.⁴

I have not discovered the source from which the pilgrim obtained his information that the dragon king of the Anavatapta Lake was the *Ta ti* or "Great land" pusa. As the words of the text show, this pusa was not the Buddha in one of his preparatory births but a pusa still living as the Naga raja of the Lake. In the D text instead of *Ta ti* we have *Pu Ti* or 'Eight lands'. This reading seems to point to some Mahayanist pusa who had attained to *eight lands* that is eight of the ten stages to perfection.

The pilgrim next goes on to tell of the Four Lords (or Sovereigns) who divide Jambudvīpa when no one has the fate to be universal sovereign over that Island and of the lands and peoples over which these Lords rule. In the south is the Ple

¹ Nos 1266 1267 l c

² Divyā p 399

³ Hua yen ching ch 67 (No 88)

⁴ Chang a lan ching l c

phant Lord whose territory has a hot moist climate with people energetic, devoted to study and addicted to magical arts, wearing garments which cross the body and leave the right shoulder bare their hair is made into a topknot in the middle and hangs down on the sides they associate in towns and live in houses of several storeys In the west is the Lord of Precious Substances who rules over the sea abounding in pearls whose subjects are rude and covetous wear short coats fastened to the left, cut their hair short and have long mustachios, they live in towns also and are traders The Horse Lord rules in the north his country is very cold, yielding horses and with inhabitants of a wild fierce nature who commit murder without remorse, they live in felt tents and are migratory herdsmen. In the East (that is, in China) is the Man Lord, who has a well peopled territory with a genial climate where all good manners and social virtues prevail and the people are attached to the soil Of these four territories it is only the East country that holds the south direction in respect, the other three regions making the east their quarter of reverence The East country (China) excels the other regions in its political organization The system of religion which teaches purification of the heart and release from the bonds [of folly] and which instructs how to escape from birth and death flourishes in the country of the Elephant Lord (India)

All these matters are set forth in authoritative writings (lit-canonical treatises and official declarations) and are learned from local hearsay From a wide study of the modern and the old and a minute examination of what is seen and heard we learn that Buddha arose in the west region and his religion spread to the east country (China), and that in the translation [from Sanskrit into Chinese] words have been wrongly used and idioms misapplied By a misuse of words the meaning is lost and by wrong phrases the doctrine is perverted Hence it is said—*"What is necessary is to have correct terms"* and to set value on the absence of faulty expressions

Now mankind differ in the quality of their natural dispositions and in their speech, the difference being partly due to local climatic circumstances and partly caused by continued use As to varieties of physical scenery and natural products in the country of the Man Lord (China), and as to the differences in the customs and dispositions of its people, these are all described in our national records The peoples of the Horse Lord and the districts of the Lord of Precious Substances are detailed in our historical teachings, and a general account of them can be given But as to the country of the Elephant-Lord (India) our ancient literature is without a description of it We have the statement (made by Chang Chien) that "the land has much heat and

moisture", and this other "the people are fond of benevolence and compassion", such mention may occur in topographies but we cannot have thorough information. Whether caused by the alternate flourishing and depression of good government, or as the natural result of secular changes, the fact is that with reference to those who, knowing the due season for giving in allegiance and enjoying the benefits of [Chinese] civilisation, came to the Emperor's Court, who passing danger after danger sought admittance at the *Yu mên* [Pass], and bearing tribute of native rarities bowed before the Palace Gate, we cannot relate their experiences. For this reason as I travelled far in quest of truth (that is, the Buddhist religion) in the intervals of my studies I kept notes of natural characteristics.

Julien in his translation of this passage gives the Sanskrit equivalents for Horse-Lord, Elephant-Lord, and Man-Lord, and tells us that a word meaning "Parasol-Lord" is found in a certain authority instead of the Precious-substances-Lord of our text. Throughout the passage, however, the pilgrim seems to be writing as a Chinese Buddhist scholar not drawing from Indian sources but from his own knowledge and experience. His information was acquired partly from Chinese books, and he perhaps learned something from the Brethren in Kashmir and other places outside of India. To him as a Chinese the people of China were *men* (*jen*), all outlying countries being peopled by *Man* and *Yi* and *Hu* and *Jung*, although as a good Buddhist he admitted the extension of the term *jen* to the inhabitants of other lands.

Our author, in writing the paragraph of this passage about Buddhism, evidently had in his memory certain observations which are to be found in the 88th Chapter of the "Hou Han Shu". These observations with the notes appended give us some help in finding out the meaning of several of the expressions in the text. For his statement here about the faults of previous translators the author has been blamed by native critics. These maintain that the transcriptions of Indian words given by Yuan-chuang's predecessors are not necessarily wrong merely because they differ from those given by him. The foreign sounds, they say, which the previous translators heard may not have

been those which our pilgrim heard, and, moreover, Chinese characters under the influence of time and place, may have changed both meaning and pronunciation. As to mistakes of interpretation there are doubtless many to be found in the early translations, but in this matter Yuan-chuang also is far from perfect.

In the next paragraph Julien apparently understood his author to state that there existed documents in their own countries on the peoples of the Horse Lord (i. e., the northern tribes) and those of the Lord of Precious substances (i. e., the nations to the south west of China). But the writer has in his mind here only Chinese literature. So also his *fang-chih* (方輿) are not "des descriptions locales" of India. They are the *books of travel* or *topographies* of Chinese literature. The term is applied to such treatises as the "Hsi-yü chü" which in fact is called a *fang chih*. Our author states that Chinese topographies have little about India, and that consequently he had no native authorities to quote or refer to. Other writers of the same period make similar complaints, and there was some reason for the complaint. Even the information communicated by the pilgrims who had preceded Yuan-chuang had not been incorporated in the national histories.

The word here rendered by "good government" is *tao* (道) which Julien translated "la droite voie". We might also render it by "the Buddhist religion", an interpretation which seems to be favoured by other passages on this subject. But the terms applied to the word here, viz *hsing tsang* (行藏), seem to require that we should render it by some such Confucian expression as "true principles" or "good government". In the last sentences of this passage Julien seems to have misunderstood his author whom he makes write about "peoples" and "all the nations". There is nothing in the text which corresponds to or requires these expressions, and the writer evidently still refers to Indian countries, the envoys from which to China had been few and little known. In the Later Han period, there was one, in the reign of Ho Ti (A. D. 89 to 105),

during the Liu Sung period there were two, one in 428 and one in 466, and there were none, apparently, after this last date down to the Sui period. Now of the travels of these envoys the Chinese records had not preserved any particulars, and the references to India and the neighbouring countries in the histories of the Han and other dynasties down to the T'ang period are very meagre. It was because the records were thus imperfect, and information was unobtainable, that the pilgrim took notes of the topography and ethnology of the districts which he visited in the course of his pilgrimage.

The author next proceeds to make a few summary observations the text of which is here reproduced for the purpose of comparison. 里嶺已來莫非胡俗雖戎人同貫而族類群分畫界封疆. In Julien's rendering the beginning of the passage runs thus—"A partir des montagnes noires, on ne rencontre que des mœurs sauvages. Quoique les peuples barbares aient été réunis ensemble, cependant leurs différentes races ont été tracées avec soin." But this does not seem to give the author's meaning which is rather something like this—

"From the Black Range on this side (i. e. to China) all the people are Hu and though Junga are counted with these yet the hordes and clans are distinct and the boundaries of territories are defined.

Now if we turn to the last section of *Chuan I* we learn what is meant by the "Black Range." We find that the frontier country on the route to India was Kapisa, which was surrounded on all sides by lofty mountains. One great range bounded it on the east, west, and south sides, separating it from "North India." This was called the Hei Lung, or Black Range, a name which translates the native term Siah koh, though it is also used to render another native term, Kara Tagh, with the same meaning. From China to the mountains of Kapisa along the pilgrim's route the inhabitants he tells us, were all Hu. These Hu are described by some writers as the descendants of early Jung settlers. But Yuan chuang, who uses Hu as a

collective designation for all the settled nations and tribes through which he passed on his way to and from India, seems to consider the Jung as a race distinct from the Hu proper. Other writers also make this distinction, regarding the Jung as of the Tibetan stock and the Hu as of Turkic kindred. But the distinction is not generally observed, and we can only say that the Hu include the Jung, who were not supposed, however, to be found beyond the Ts'ung Ling westward. In early Chinese history, e.g. in the Yu lung of the "Shu Ching" we find Jung occupying the country about the Koko Nor. They were then pastoral tribes, rearing cattle and wearing clothing prepared from the skins of their animals. Afterwards they spread to Hami and to Turfan and the Ts'ung Ling, becoming mainly agricultural peoples.

Instead of *Jung* (戎) in the text here the C text has *Shu* (戍) which the editors explain as *soldier*, the *Shu jün* being the Chinese troops stationed in the Hu Countries. But this reading, which does not seem to be a good one, was perhaps originally due to a copyist's error.

The pilgrim's description proceeds—"For the most part [these tribes] are settled peoples with walled cities practising agriculture and rearing cattle. They prize the possession of property and slight humanity and public duty (lit. benevolence and righteousness). Their marriages are without ceremonies and there are no distinctions as to social position: the wife's word prevails and the husband has a subordinate position. They burn their corpses and have no fixed period of mourning. *They flay (?) the face and cut off the ears: they clip their hair short and rend their garments. They slaughter the domestic animals and offer sacrifice to the manes of their dead.* They wear white clothing on occasions of good luck and black clothing on unlucky occasions. This is a general summary of the manners and customs common to the tribes, but each state has its own political organization which will be described separately, and the manners and customs of India will be told in the subsequent Records."

This brief and terse account of the social characteristics common to the tribes and districts between China and India presents some rather puzzling difficulties. It is too summary, and is apparently to a large extent secondhand

information obtained from rather superficial observers, not derived from the author's personal experience, and it does not quite agree with the accounts given by previous writers and travellers. Thus the pilgrim states that the tribes in question had no fixed period of mourning, that is, for deceased parents, but we learn that the people of Yenki observed a mourning of seven days for their parents. Nor was it the universal custom to burn the dead, for the Tufan people, for example, buried their dead.¹

All the part of the passage which I have put in italics is taken by Julien to refer to the mourning customs of the tribes, and this seems to be the natural and proper interpretation. But it is beset with difficulties. The original for "they flay the face and cut off the ears" is rendered by Julien—"Ils se font des incisions sur la figure et se mutilent les oreilles." The word for "flay" or "make cuts in" is in the D text 𠂔 (𠂔) which does not seem to give any sense, and in the other texts it is 𠂔 (𠂔) which is an unknown character but is explained as meaning to "flay". Julien evidently regarded the latter character as identical with 𠂔 (𠂔) which is the word used in the Tang-Shu.² This last character means originally to *inscribe* or *delineate* and also to *blacken* and to *flay*. As an act of filial mourning for a dead parent the Tufan people, we are told, blackened (*tai* 𠂔) their faces, and among some tribes it apparently was the custom to tear or gash the face at the funeral of a parent or chief. But to flay or brand the face and to cut off an ear were acts of punishment which were perhaps common to all the tribes in question.

Then 'to cut the hair short' was an act of filial mourning in Tufan, but in the first foreign countries which the pilgrim reached it was the universal custom for the men, and it was done, we learn elsewhere, to set off the head.³ In Khoten, however, the hair was cut off and the face disfigured as acts

¹ Wei Shu ch 102 Tang shu ch 216 Ma T 1 ch 334

² Ch 217

³ Wei Shu 1 C

of mourning at a funeral.¹ We find it recorded moreover that when the death of T'ang T'ai Tsung was announced, the barbarians sojourning at the capital expressed their sorrow by wailing, cutting off their hair, gashing² (*li* 𠂔) their faces, and cutting their ears until the blood washed the ground.³

Then as to the phrase "rend their garments", the words *lie-ch'ang* (裂 𦐇) would seem to be susceptible of no other interpretation, and the pilgrim tells us afterwards that the people of India "rent their garments and tore out their hair" as expressions of mourning. The rending of the garments, however, was not a custom common to the tribes between India and China, and it could not have been practised by them generally on account of the material which was in general use for their clothing. Some native scholars explain the words *lie ch'ang* here as meaning "they wear clothes without folds and seams", that is, their garments are strips or single pieces. Something like this was the style of the outer articles of a Chinaman's dress in the T'ang period and it was probably adopted by some of the foreign tribes to which Chinese influence reached. We still see survivals of it on the streets in Korea.

As to the slaughter of domestic animals, this was practised at funerals by the Tufan people but not by all the other tribes. The Turks, who also gashed their faces in mourning, slew sheep and horses in front of the tent in which the body of a deceased parent was placed pending the completion of arrangements for burial. It is to be noted, however, that the Tufan people and the Turks are not said to have slain their domestic animals in sacrifice to the *manes* of their deceased parents.³ These animals were killed, we are expressly told in the case of the Tufan people, that they might be at the service of the departed one, as the human beings who were slain, or killed themselves, on the death

¹ *Ka lan chi ch* 5

² *Tung chien kang mu ch* 40

³ See *Ma T 1 ch* 331 313

of a relative or chief went to serve the deceased in the other world. Julien makes our pilgrim here state that the tribes slew their domestic animals to make offerings to their dead. This is perhaps more than is in the text which is simply that they "slaughter their domestic animals, and offer sacrifice to the *manes*".

CHAPTER III.

FROM KAO CH'ANG TO THE THOUSAND SPRINGS

A KI NI (YEN KI)

The narrative in the Records now begins with this account,

Going from what was formerly the land of *Kao ch'ang* we begin with the country nearest to it and called *A ki ni*: this is above 600 *li* from east to west and 400 *li* from north to south its capital being six or seven *li* in circuit.

In the *Life* we have a detailed account of the unpleasant and adventurous journey from the Chinese capital to the chief city of *Kao ch'ang*. This city, we know, was in the district which is now called *Tuifan* and it is said to be represented by the modern *Huo chow* (火州) otherwise *Kaiakhojo*. At the time of our pilgrim's visit *Kao ch'ang* was a thriving kingdom, and its king, though a vassal of China, was a powerful despot feared by the surrounding states. This king, whose name was *Ku uen-tai* (趙文泰) or as it is also given *Ku la* (嘉), had received *Yuan chuang* on his arrival with great ceremony and kindness had tried entreaty and flattery and even force to retain him and had at last sent the pilgrim on his way with great honour, giving him presents and provisions and also letters of introduction to other sovereigns. Then why does *Yuan chuang* here write of *Kao ch'ang* as a state which had ceased to exist? The explanation is to be found in the great change which that kingdom had experienced between

the years 630 and 646. We learn from history that in the year A. D. 639 the Chinese emperor Tai Tung sent an army to invade Kaochang and punish its ruler who had dared to defy the imperial power. This ruler was the Kū wén t'ui who had been Yuan chuáng's host. He thought himself safe from Chinese invasion and boasted and swaggered at the threat of a Chinese army coming into his country until the invading force was actually within his borders. When he learned however, that the hostile army was fast approaching his capital he became so utterly possessed by abject fear that he became helpless. And his death soon followed. Hereupon his wise son and successor at once submitted to the Chinese general who however, "extinguished Kaochang", whereupon T'u Tsung made its territory a Prefecture of the Empire. This procedure called forth a generous protest from one of the Emperor's wise and faithful ministers but the remonstrance was in vain and in 640 Kaochang became the Chinese *Hsi-chow* (西州). Thus Yuan chuáng writing under imperial orders and for the Emperor's reading must needs take notice of the great political change which had taken place in the Kaochang country since the date of his visit. The change proved bad for China and the new state of affairs did not last very long. For the present, however, our author has to describe the "Western Lands" that is the countries which were outside of the western border of the Chinese empire. Up to 640 Kaochang was one of these countries but from that year the empire reached on the east to the ocean and on the west to the kingdom which was the first to the west of Kaochang viz the *Yenki* of this narrative.

There cannot be any doubt that the country which Yuan chuáng here calls *Yenki* (焉耆) was as has been stated by others, that which is known in Chinese history as *Yenki* (焉耆). This state rose to power in the Han period and from that time down to the Tang dynasty it bore in Chinese treatises this name *Yenki* which is still its classical and literary designation in Chinese literature.

Then why did Yuan chuang use the name *A k i n i* a name for which he seems to be the sole authority?

The explanation is simple. There was we learn from an interpolated comment to the text an old name for this country which is given as *Hu / i* (胡 或 呼 者). This seems to have been the name used by the translators of the sacred books and by Buddhist writers generally. Thus in the translation of the *Ti pao chi ching* by Fa hu of the Western Chin dynasty we find mention of *Wuk i* along with *Kloten* and other countries. So also Tao hsuin in his *Su kao seng chuan* mentions *Wuk i* as the country between *Kutz i* (*Kuchih*) and *Kaochang*. In the *Fang chih* also we find the name given as *Wuk i* and *Fa hsien s Hu i* (呼 国) is apparently the country under consideration. The first character *hu* in each of these varieties of the name was probably pronounced *a* or *o* and the second character represented a sound like */ i* or *gi* the whole giving us a name like *ah / i* or *agi*. Thus we have at Yuan chuang's time three different designations for this country—the *Yen k i* of Chinese historians the *Wu / i* of the Buddhist writers and Y's own name for it *A / i n i*. The explanation of this variety is instructive as the theory which underlies it applies to several other districts. In *Yen k i* we have the local or *Hu* name. This apparently was (or was understood to be) *Yanghi* a Turkish word for *fire* the full name being perhaps something like *Yanghi shaher* or *Fire city*. Now in all the *Hu* countries the Buddhist monks we are told used among themselves the language of *India*. In this language the correct Sanskrit name for *fire* is *agni* the *a k i n i* of our author. We find the three characters of the text used by Yuan chuang in a translation of a sacred book to transcribe *agni* as the Sanskrit name for *fire* and by Gunabhadra in one of his translations to transcribe this word in the proper name *Agnidatta*¹. But the monks of the *Hu*

¹ *A p t a m o t a p i j o s h a l u n c / 1 o* (Bun No 1963) *Tsa a han ci ng c / 2 o* (No 544)

countries did not all come from 'Central India' and they did not talk Sanskrit. They spoke and wrote dialectic varieties with vernacular forms of Indian words, and they often used words which were foreign but were made to assume a Sanskrit garb. So the Brethren of the country with which we are now concerned had apparently used the Pali form *Agī* instead of *Āgri*, and this had been used by others but Yuan chuang being a purist preferred to write the Sanskrit form.

In the periods of the Yuan and Ming dynasties the city and district called Yen-k₁, still retaining this name, were grouped with four others in the political aggregate called Bish-balik or Pentapolis. Hence we sometimes find it stated that Yen-k₁ is Bish-balik, but this latter name is more frequently applied to Urums₁. At the present time the city called K₁ar₁- (or Khar₁-)shahr is generally taken to be the representative of the ancient capital of Yen-k₁. But the site of the latter was apparently some what to the west of the modern Khar₁shahr at a place which has several ancient ruins. This modern city is said to have received its name from the grimy appearance of its walls and houses, K₁ar₁shahr in Turkic meaning "Black city", an etymology which is confirmed by Dr Sven Hedin's account².

Like many other states in this part of Asia Yen-k₁ has had many ups and downs, passing several times from power and preeminence to subjection and vassalage. One of these

¹ Lu tai yen ko piao (路代元科抄) ch. 3 Med. Rev. Vol. II p. 229. But the name Bish-balik seems to have been applied to six cities regarded as forming a political unit.

² Dr Sven Hedin writes—"Kara shahr (the Black Town) fully deserves its name for it is without comparison the dirtiest town in all Central Asia. It stands on the left bank of the river (the Hadik- or Khaidik gol) on a level barren plain totally destitute of any feature of interest. Nevertheless it is a large town very much larger than Korla consisting of a countless number of miserable hovels, courtyards, bazaars and Mongol tents surrounded by a wall and is the chief commercial emporium in that part of Chinese Turkestan. Through Asia, p. 809.

vicissitudes was experienced by it in A D 643—644 when the Chinese emperor T'u Tsung sent an army which invaded the country, conquered it and made its king a prisoner for a time. A similar disaster befell it in A D 648, when its king was beheaded by the Turkish invader.¹ The country under the official designation *Kharashahr* (喀喇沙爾) is now a military station and an important Sub-Prefecture of the Chinese empire.

It is remarkable that neither in the Records nor in the Life of our pilgrim nor in the itinerary of Wu'ung is the distance of Yen k' from Kao chang given but we learn from other sources that it was 900 *li*.² In another account of the country the capital is described as being 30 *li* in circuit which is a much larger area than that given in our text but another account makes it to be only two *li* square. The name of the capital also is given as *Nan ho ch eng* (南河城) and also as *Yun lu* (員渠) which is perhaps only another form of Yen k'.³ The city was situated 70 *li* south of the White Mountain and a few *li* from a lake.⁴ This lake, which is described as having salt and fish and as abounding in reeds, has many names. It is sometimes simply the "sea" or Dengir, and it is the Bostang, or Barashahr, or Bagrash Lake. The description in our text proceeding states that

[the country] on four sides adjoins hills with roads hazardous and easily defended. The various streams join in zones and their water is led in for the cultivated land. The soil grows millet spring wheat scented jujubes grapes, pears, and prunes. The climate is genial and the people have honest ways. Their writing is taken from that of India with slight modifications. Their garments are of fine and coarse woollen stuffs. The men cut their hair short and do not wear any head dress. They use gold silver and small copper coins. Their king is a native of the country who is brave but without practical ability and conceited. The country

¹ Tung chien kang mu ch 40 (18th year of T'ung T'ai Tsung by the Chinese and 22d year by the Turks) Ma T 1 ch 336

² Ma T 1 l c. Tung chih hao the 吐蕃 ch 1

³ Chien Han shu ch 96 Wei shu ch 102

⁴ Wei Shu l c Ma T 1 l c Chien Han shu l c

is without a political constitution and its laws are not reduced to order

The first sentence of this passage is not very clear as to whether the description is meant for the whole country or only for the district of the capital. Our pilgrim seems to have drawn his information partly from the source which supplied the author of the "Hou Han-Shu".¹ In that work, and in Ma Tuan lin's treatise which follows it, it is the Yenki country which is described as being surrounded by hills or mountains. But there were apparently no mountains on the east side of Yenki, and the Life tells only of two cities which the pilgrim passed on his way from the capital of K'ao ch'ang, without any mention of a mountain. That the roads were dangerous and easily guarded is also stated in the Hou Han Shu almost in the words used in our text, and this also seems to indicate that it is the country which is described. But the expression "on four sides adjoins (or abuts on) hills" (四面據山) is apparently more appropriate to a city than to a country. Then we have the statement that "the various streams join in zones" that is, unite to form belts or lines of water. For this the original is "ch'üan (in the B text *chung lin chiao tai* (泉在B衆流交帶), and Julien translates "une multitude des courants qui viennent se joindre ensemble, l'entourent comme une ceinture". The term *chiao tai* seems to have in some places the meaning here given to it by Julien, but it commonly means to *join in forming a continuous line*. Thus it is used of a series of tanks formed or connected by a river and of tears uniting to form streams on the cheeks. This sense of "joining and carrying" the stream seems to suit our passage, and the circumstances of the district. In Yenki the beck of the mountains joined in forming the various rivers by which the country was watered. Thus the Khaidu, the principal river, was formed by the junction of a large number of tributary streams from the Northern or White mountain

¹ Ch. 88

In the passage of the Han Shu already referred to we find the statement that the 'water of the sea (that is the Bostang Lake to the south east of the capital) was deflected into the four mountains and flowed all about the capital (其城) for above thirty li", a statement which is repeated by Ma Tuan lin. And although the kingdom contained several (according to one account ten) other towns it was doubtless of the capital and the surrounding districts that the words of our text were written. The water from the various rivers was led in channels from the lines of current to irrigate the land devoted to the cultivation of crops and fruit trees. This artificial irrigation mentioned by our pilgrim is not noticed in the Han Shu but it was known to the author of the 'Shui ching chu' (水經注) and it is referred to in recent works such as the Travels of Timkowski.¹

In the list of products here given the term translated "millet" is *mi shu* (糜黍) which Julien renders "millet rouge", the same rendering being given for the one character *mi* in the next page. Instead of this character the D text has in both places the word *mei* (or *meh* 糜) the name of a kind of millet "with reddish culms". The texts may be corrupt and Yuan chuang may have written *mei* (糜) which we learn from the 'Yu pien' was a synonym for *Chi* (禾經) a kind of panicle millet much cultivated in the north and northwest of China. By "spring wheat" (宿麥) is meant the wheat which is sown in autumn and ripens in the following spring. This spends the winter in the ground, and in this way it passes from one year into the next and hence its distinctive name.

The sentence 'Their writing is taken from that of India with slight modifications their garments are of fine and coarse woollen stuffs' is in the original *uen tzu chu tse yin tu uai yu tseng chuan fu shih tieh ho* (文字取則印度微有增損服飾) in the A, B, and C texts. The D

¹ Hsin chuang c' 3 Timkowski's Travels Vol I p1 398 410.
The artificial irrigation is mentioned in the Tang Shu ch 221

text has differences and it reads—"The writing is modeled after that of India. There is little of silk stuffs, the dress is of felt and serge." Here we have *tseng chuan* (繪絹) "silk stuffs" instead of the other *tsêng chuan* meaning "addings to and takings from" or "modifications", and we have *chan* (絨) "felt" or "coarse woollen stuff" instead of the *tieh* of the other texts. All the texts, we see, agree in the statement that the writing of this country was taken from that of India, and the Wei Shu makes the same statement. If we are to take the author as adding that slight changes had been made in the Indian writing in Yenki the information may be regarded as correct.

So also if the D text is genuine and we are to substitute for "there are slight modifications" the words "there are few silks" we have a statement which is confirmed by other accounts. The people of Yenki had the silkworms, but they did not know how to make silk, and the only silk-stuffs they used were imported. So they did not wear silk, and their dress was of woollen material. Julien translates the four words *fu shih-tieh ho* by "Les vêtements sont faits de coton ou de laine". But the reading should probably be *chan* as in the D text. This reading of *chan* instead of *tieh* is supported by the epithet "Wearers of felt and serge" which the Chinese applied to the Hu and Jung in contrast to themselves as "silk wearers". Then we have also the testimony of I-ching that the inhabitants of the countries with which we are concerned used mainly felt and fur as clothing, and that they had little cotton cloth (少有劫貝). But even if we take *tieh* to be the reading in the passage before us, it is at least doubtful whether it should be translated here by *cotton*. The word did come to be used as a name for cotton, and Yuan chuang seems to employ it in other passages, to denote something like fine cotton or muslin. In the Tang Shu we find *pai tieh* described as the name of a plant of Kao ch'ang from the flowers of which a cloth was made, and in this treatise *tieh* is cotton. But on the other hand the word is explained in old glossaries and dictionaries as denoting a "cloth made of

han (or wool)", and the formation of the character seems to point to such material. Then we find such expressions as *pai chan-tieh*, "white felt-cloth", and *tieh* alone, mentioned along with the *kieh pei* or Kibat (Karpura) "cotton-cloth" as different materials. Moreover the modern equivalent for *tieh* in Chinese books about the Mongols, Tibetans, and peoples of Turkestan is *pu-lu*, which is the name of a woollen fabric manufactured in the "west countries". There is great confusion in the use of *chan* and *tieh* (not only in these Records, and the Life, but also in many other works,) and we have often to make the Context decide whether the author meant *cotton* or *woollen*.

The king of Yenki whose character is briefly described in the passage before us was *Lung-T'ul'ichi* (龍突騎支) of which *Lung* was the surname and *T'ul'ichi* (Dughitsi?) the name. This prince secretly renounced his duty and allegiance to China, and entered into an engagement with the West Turks to harass China. So the emperor T'ai Tsung in 643 sent an army to invade Yenki and punish its perfidious ruler. The latter was dethroned and taken prisoner in 644, but in the course of a few years the Chinese found it necessary to restore him to the throne.²

For the words—"The country is without a political constitution, its laws are not reduced to order" the text is *Kuo-tu-lang-chi-fa pu-cheng-su* (國無綱紀法不整肅). Julien translates this—"Ce royaume ne possede point de code, l'ordre et la paix se maintiennent sans le secours des lois". The latter clause of this sentence does not seem to be possible as a rendering of the Chinese. Moreover in the term *Kang chi* are included not merely a code, but also the ethical and political maxims which form the basis of the political system, and give the state enactments their sanction. Then *Kang chi* comes to denote the general principles or essentials of government, and the particular rules or institutions of a State or Empire. Thence the

¹ Nan hai chi kwei ch 2 Yu pien s v T'ieh Sung Shih ch 489 c

² Tang-chien kang mu 1 c

term was extended to the constitution and laws of any system political or religious, and Yuan-chuang, for example, uses it with reference to Buddhism. As to Yenki, the author states, it had no fundamental statutes or national political regulations, and it was also without any system of definite laws in force among the people. This is a reproach which we find brought against the Country also in the Wei-Shu which writes of it as "without a political system and laws (無綱紀法令)".¹

The pilgrim's description proceeds—

"There are above ten Buddhist monasteries with above 2000 ecclesiastics of all degrees, all adherents of the Sarvastivādin school of the "Small Vehicle" system. Since as to the sūtra teachings and vinaya regulations they follow India, it is in its literature that students of these subjects study them thoroughly. They are very strict in the observance of the rules of their order but in food they mix (take in a miscellaneous way) the three pure [kinds of flesh] embarrassed by the 'gradual teaching'."

One of the large monasteries in this country was that known as the Aranya-vihāra here Dharmagupta lodged in the year A D 585 when on his way to China. The Sarvastivādin school to which the Brethren in Yenki belonged was a branch from the ancient Sthavira school. It had its name from its assertion that *all were real*, viz. past, present, future, and intermediate states. Its adherents claimed to represent the original teaching of the Master, as it was delivered, and as settled in Council by the "Elders" (Sthaviras) who had heard it from his lips. So they considered themselves strictly orthodox, and they were zealous enthusiastic adherents of what they regarded as the simple primitive religion. The Brethren in Yenki followed the teachings of the Buddha as recorded in the Indian scriptures of which they were diligent students.

¹ The *lang* of *lang-chi* is originally the large thick rope of a fisherman's casting net and the *chi* are the small cords of the same. Then *lang chi* (or *chi lang*) came to be applied to the established controlling principles of government, the codified means of preserving order in a state. From this use the term came to be extended to social institutions and to systems of religion and philosophy.

The next part of this paragraph has received bad treatment at the hands of the translators. Julien's version of it is—"Les religieux s'acquittent de leurs devoirs et observent les regles de la discipline avec un pureté sévère et un zèle perseverant. Ils se nourrissent de trois sortes d'aliments purs et s'attachent à la doctrine graduelle." The words of the original are *Chie hsing lu i chie ching chin li jan chih tsa san chung chih yu chien chiao* (戒行律儀清勤屬然仁雜三淨淨干漸教矣). It is not easy to conjecture why *chie hsing* should be here rendered 's'acquittent de leurs devoirs'. The term is part of the clause which tells us that the Brethren were careful observers of the Vinaya commands to do and abstain from doing. Then the translation leaves out the important words *jan* meaning 'but' and *tsa* meaning "to mix", and it renders *chih yu* "to stick in" or "be detained in" by "s'attachent surtout à". Then Julien did not know what was meant by the "trois sortes d'aliments purs", so he gives us in a note an account of certain five "aliments purs" derived from another treatise. What the pilgrim tells us here is plain and simple. The Buddhist Brethren in the monasteries of Yenki were pure and strict in keeping all the laws and regulations of their order according to their own Vinaya. But in food they took along with what was orthodox the three kinds of pure flesh being still held in the "gradual teaching". The student will be helped in understanding this passage if he turns to the account of the next country Kuchuk and to the pilgrim's experience in that country as set forth in the Life and to the account of the Swan Monastery in *Chuan IX* of the Records (Julien III p. 60) and *Chuan III* of the Life (*ib.* I. p. 162).

The explanation of the *san chung* or "three pure kinds of flesh" is briefly as follows. In the time of Buddha there was in Vaisali a wealthy general named Siha who was a convert to Buddhism. He became a liberal supporter of the Brethren and kept them constantly supplied with good flesh food. When it was noised abroad that the bhikkhus were in the habit of eating such food specially

provided for them the Tirthikas made the practice a matter of angry reproach. Then the abstemious ascetic Brethren, learning this, reported the circumstances to the Master, who thereupon called the Brethren together. When they were assembled, he announced to them the law that they were not to eat the flesh of any animal which they had seen put to death for them, or about which they had been told that it had been killed for them, or about which they had reason to suspect that it had been slain for them. But he permitted to the Brethren as "pure" (that is, lawful) food the flesh of animals the slaughter of which had not been seen by the bhikshus, not heard of by them, and not suspected by them to have been on their account.¹ In the Pali and Ssū-fēn Vinaya it was after a breakfast given

'bird killed (鳥殘)' made a *san chung*. It is evidently in this latter sense that the term is used in these Records.

Then we have the 'gradual teaching' which to Yuan-chuang's mind was intimately connected with the heresy of sanctioning flesh food. Here we have a reference to an old division of the Buddha's personal teachings into "gradual (or progressive)" *chuen* (漸) and "instantaneous", *tun* (頓).¹ Of these the former according to the Mahayanists, contained all those scriptures which gave the Buddha's early teaching and also the rules and regulations which formed the Vinaya. The Buddha suited his sermons and precepts to the moral and spiritual attainments and requirements of his audience. Those who were low in the scale he led on gradually by the setting forth of simple truths, by parable and lesson and by mild restrictions as to life and conduct. At a later period of his ministry he taught higher truths and inculcated a stricter purity and more thorough self denial. Thus in the matter of flesh food he sanctioned the use of it as an ordinary article of food by his own example and implied permission. Afterwards when he found that some of his disciples gave offence by begging for beef and mutton and asking to have animals killed for them, and eating as daily food flesh which should only be taken in exceptional circumstances he introduced restrictions and prohibitions. But the 'Instantaneous Teaching', which took no note of circumstances and environments, revealed sublime spiritual truths to be comprehended and accepted at once by higher minds, taught for these a morality absolute and universal, and instituted rules for his professed disciples to be of eternal unchanging obligation.

The "Gradual Teaching" is practically coextensive with the *Hinayana* system, and the Buddha describes his teaching and Vinaya as *gradual*, growing and developing like the mango fruit according to some

¹ Hua yen vi sheng chiao yi fen chi chang (No 1091) Ssū chiao yi (No 1099). In the Chung a han ching (No 542) ch 9 Buddha's dharma and vinaya are described as *gradual*.

scriptures The "Instantaneous Teaching" is the Mahāyāna system as found in those scriptures of the Buddhists which are outside of the Hinayana Tripitaka This distinction derived from a passage in the Laṅkāvatīra sūtra, is ascribed to Dharmapāla (*Hu fa* 護法) The Nirvāṇa sūtras are quoted as specimens of the Gradual Teaching and the Avatamsaka sūtras are given as examples of the *Tun-chiao* or "Instantaneous Teaching"

Our pilgrim being an adherent of the Mahāyānist system refused to admit the validity of the "three fold pure" flesh food indulgence which the excellent Hinayana Brethren of Yenki followed The Buddhist Scriptures to which Yuan chuang adhered prohibit absolutely the use of flesh of any kind as food by the "sons of Buddha" This prohibition is based on the grounds of universal compassion and the doctrine of karma Mahāyānism teaches that the eating of an animal's flesh retards the spiritual growth of the Brother who eats it and entails evil consequences in future existences Some Mahāyānists were strict in abstaining—not only from all kinds of flesh food, but also from milk and its products In this they agreed as we shall see, with the sectarians who were followers of Devadatta There have also, however, been Mahāyānists who allowed the use of animal food of certain kinds and we find wild geese, calves, and deer called *san-chung shih* or "Three pure (lawful) articles of food" It was a common occurrence for a Hinayanist to be converted and "advance" to Mahāyānism but the Yenki Brethren were still *detained* or *embarrassed* in the "Gradual Teaching" of the Hinayana The word for *detained* is *chih* (遲) which means to be fretted or delayed, as a stream by an obstacle in its course Then it denotes the mental suspense caused by doubts and difficulties, and the check given by these to spiritual progress, it is often associated with the word for *doubt*

* 1 Fan wang ching c/ 2 (No 1087) Ta i an nie pan ching ch 4 (No 114) Ju ling ka ching ch 8 (No 176) Shou leng yen ching hui chie 1 c

KUCHIH

The pilgrim now goes on to tell us that from Yenki he went south west above 200 li crossed a hill and two large rivers west to a plain and after travelling above 700 li from that he came to the Ku chih country. This country was above 1000 li from east to west and 600 li from north to south its capital being 17 or 18 li in circuit.

According to the account in the Life the pilgrim passed only one large river in the journey from Yenki to Kuchih. In other works the distance between these two places is somewhat greater, and the area of the capital of Kuchih is much less than in our text.

The Chinese annotator here tells us that the old name of Ku chih (屈支) was Ku tse (屈枝), as we are told to pronounce these characters. This is not only the old name but also the only one by which the country was known to the Chinese until a comparatively modern time.¹ A Sanskrit Chinese Vocabulary gives Kuchina (俱支兒) as its Sanskrit designation, but the word does not seem to be otherwise known. There are various transcriptions of the sound Ku tse, but Wu k'ung tells us that Ku-chih is the correct form of the name.² The modern Chinese official name of the district and its capital is Ku-ch'ie (庫車), the Kuchah and Kocha of our maps. This term is explained as meaning the "Dry well of Ku", but the etymology cannot be accepted.³ In modern Tibetan books the name is given as Khu chhu or Khu the. This country was known to the Chinese from the early Han time, and in

¹ An old variety of the name is Kucha (訶叉). As Goetz calls the country *Cucia* the modern official name was apparently in use before the Manchu conquest of China (See Yule's Cathay p. 573). Ku tsang (姑藏) which is sometimes identified with Kutse, was the name of an old district in what is now the Province of Kansu.

² The first syllable is found written also 丘邱 and 屈, and the second syllable is sometimes 支. See Shih li chung, and J. A. T. VI p. 363 and note.

³ Hsin chiang ch. 3. Here it is stated that the country got its name from the "dry wells" in it.

A. D. 435 it became a vassal to China.¹ The old Kutsé embraced, not only the district now called Ku-ché, but also that of the present Sairam and other territory. It was an ancient state, and its extent varied at different periods. In a translation of a Buddhist book we find it mentioned as one of the parts of his great empire which Aśoka proposed to give over to his son Kunāla.² The capital of Kutsé was at one time (in the 1st cent. A. D.) the Yen (罽) city, and afterwards it was *Yi-lo-lu* (伊洛盧).³ In the Yuan period it was a constituent part of the Bish-balik territory, and it was also called *I-lu pa-lu* or *Il-balik*.⁴ We find it described as being 200 or 170 *li* south of the Ak tagh or White Mountains which emitted fire and smoke and yielded sal ammoniac.⁵

This country, the pilgrim continues, yielded millet, wheat, rice, grapes, pomegranates, and plenty of pears, plums, peaches, and apricots. It produced also gold, copper, iron, lead, and tin. Its climate was temperate and the people had honest ways. Their writing was taken from that of India but had been much altered, they had great skill with wind and stringed musical instruments, they dressed in variegated woollen cloth, cut their hair short, wore turbans, used coins of gold and silver and small copper ones, and they flattened the heads of their babies. Their king was a Kuchih man, he had few intellectual resources and was under the sway of powerful statesmen.

The word here rendered "millet" is the *mi* (𥽿) of the previous section. But instead of this character the C text has *ma* (麻), "hemp", and the D text has *mei* as before. The word *hsing* (杏) here rendered by "apricots" is translated "almonds" by Julien although in his "Documents Géographiques" he has given the correct rendering "apricots". The skill of the Kuchih people in music is mentioned by

¹ Tung chien kang mu ch 25 (Sung Wen Huang Ti Yuan chia 12th year.

² A yu wang hsi hui mu yin yuan ching (No. 1367)

³ Chien Han Shu ch 96 Wei Shu ch 102 Ma T 1 ch 336 It was in the Tang period that the capital was *Yi lo lu*

⁴ Li tai yen ko piao, l c Tung chien kang mu ch 25

⁵ Sui Shu ch 83 Ta ching yi tung chih ch 351 See also Tim-kowsk's Voyage Vol I p 398

bidden by the "Great Vehicle" of which he was an adherent. The Brethren, who were all Hinayanists, gave the pilgrim in their several monasteries as light refreshment grape syrup which was a strictly orthodox beverage for all. Ku chih had long been converted to Buddhism but it had not always been Hinayanist as we read of one of its former kings being a devoted Mahayanist.

The pilgrim's description proceeds to relate that in the eastern part of Kuchih was a large Dragon Tank in front of a Deva Temple to the north of a city. The dragons of this tank changed themselves into horses and then coupled with mares: the offspring of this union was a fierce intractable breed, but the next generation formed fine horses patient of harness, and of these there were very many. Local tradition told of a king in recent times named Gold Flower who by his regal ordinances and judicial impartiality moved the dragons to become his vehicles: and when he wanted to die he touched the dragons ears with a whip whereupon he sank out of sight with them to the present time. There were no wells in the city and the people drew water from the Tank: the dragons now changed themselves into men and had intercourse with the women: the offspring of this union became daring and fleet as horses: and all the inhabitants gradually came to have a mixture of the dragon in them, trusting to their might they made themselves feared, and came to slight the king's commands, whereupon the king brought in the Turks who slew all the living creatures in the city, and this was now a jungle without human inhabitants.

This interpretation of the story about king Gold-Flower differs from the translation of the passage given by Julien which does not seem to be correct. It reads—"Le roi montrait, dans ses lois, une rare pénétration. Il sut toucher les dragons et les atteler à son char. Quand il voulait se rendre invisible, il frappait leurs oreilles avec son fouet et disparaissait subitement. Depuis cette époque, jusqu'à ce jour, la ville ne possède point de puits, de sorte que les habitants vont prendre dans le lac leau dont ils ont besoin." By a comparison of this with the original¹ we

¹ The original of the passage quoted from Julien is 一政教明察
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今城中無井取汲池水

other writers, and their music and musical instruments became well known to the Chinese. So also the woollen cloths and good rugs of this country were known to the Chinese before the time of our pilgrim, as were also its iron and copper products. We learn also that its king had a golden throne, and wore a magnificent turban with a long streamer hanging down behind. The reigning sovereign at the time of Yuan-chuang's visit had the surname P'ai (付) and was a lineal descendant of the man whom Lü kuang (呂 光) had put on the throne more than 200 years before Yuan-chuang's time. This king showed his want of political wisdom in renouncing Chinese suzerainty in favour of an alliance with the Turks who in A. D. 618 invaded his country and took him prisoner.¹

The pilgrim's description proceeds to relate that there were in this country more than 100 Buddhist monasteries with above 5000 Brethren who were adherents of the Sarvāstivādin branch of the "Little Vehicle" and studied the books of their religion in the language of India. These Brethren also were held in the "gradual teaching", and took along with other food the "three pure" kinds of flesh, but they were extremely punctilious in observing the rules of their code of discipline.

As we learn from other sources the people of this country were good Buddhists, and the number of Buddhist images and buildings throughout the land was very great.² Our pilgrim passed more than one monastery in it on his way to the capital, and he spent his first night there with the Kao-ch'ang Brethren in their monastery. That the lay people, or at least the king, kept the vows of lay disciples we may infer from the Life's account of the king's breakfast to the pilgrim. It is specially mentioned that among the food served at this entertainment were the "three pure" kinds of meat; Yuan-chuang partook of the rest of the food but declined these, explaining that although they were allowed by the "gradual teaching" they were for-

¹ Wei Shu, l c. Sui shu l C. Tung-chien-kang-mu ch 40.

² Fang-chih ch. 1 Chin (晉) Shu ch 97. Tarikh-i-Rashid by Elias and Ross p 124 note.

bidden by the "Great Vehicle" of which he was an adherent. The Brethren, who were all Hinayānists, gave the pilgrim in their several monasteries as light refreshment grape-syrup which was a strictly orthodox beverage for all. Ku chih had long been converted to Buddhism but it had not always been Hinayānist as we read of one of its former kings being a devoted Mahāyānist.

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interrogated the Buddha is the only one of the Buddhist buildings called *Chuo li* to which this interpretation can be applied with any probability. Another suggestion is that *Chuo li* and *Chao hu-li* may be the foreign term represented by the common transcription *Chu li* (侏離) which means *molley* or *particoloured*, of mixed bright and dark colours. This interpretation would evidently suit some, and perhaps would apply to all, of the buildings to which the terms in question are applied.

Outside of the west gate of the capital the narrative relates, were two standing images of the Buddha, above ninety feet high, one on each side of the highway. These images marked the place where the great quinquennial Buddhist assemblies were held and at which the annual autumn religious meetings of clergy and laity occurred. The latter meetings lasted for some tens of days and were attended by ecclesiastics from all parts of the country. While these convocations were sitting the king and all his subjects made holiday, abstaining from work, keeping fast, and hearing religious discourses. All the monasteries made processions with their images of Buddha, adorning these with pearls and silk embroideries. The images were borne on vehicles and beginning with a thousand they became a great multitude at the place of meeting. North west from this place of assembly and on the other side of a river was the *A she li yi* (阿奢理貳 or 兒) Monastery. This had spacious halls and artistic images of the Buddha. Its Brethren were grave seniors of long perseverance in seeking for moral perfection and of great learning and intellectual abilities. The monastery was a place of resort for men of eminence from distant lands who were hospitably entertained by the king and officials and people. The pilgrim then gives the curious legend about the origin of the monastery.

We know from the Life that our pilgrim's account of the Buddhist procession of images here was derived from his own experience as he reached the country in time to witness one of these processions. The native annotator explains the *A she li yi* here by "marvellous" and it is evidently a transcription of the Sanskrit word *ascharya*, meaning a *marvel* or *miracle*.¹ According to the legend

¹ The character here read *yi* is 異 and Juhent transliterates it *ni* but the old and correct sound of the character is *yi* and in the Life

related by the pilgrim the monastery was erected by a king to commemorate the miracle which was wrought on his pure and noble-minded brother. One of its chief monks at this time, we learn from the Life, was the Brother known in religion by the name Mokshagupta, a Hinayanist who had studied above twenty years in India, and had acquired a great reputation in Kuchih, especially for his knowledge of the commentaries and etymology. When Yuan-chuang arrived Mokshagupta treated him merely with the ordinary courtesy due to any guest, but when the pilgrim exposed the ignorance of his host the latter came to treat him as his master in religion. This monastery is mentioned in Wu k'ung's itinerary by the name *A-shê-li-yi*. It is also perhaps the Wang Ssü or Royal Vihāra of other writers, and we find Dharmagupta lodged in the Royal Vihara about A D 585 while he stayed in this country. The Miracle Monastery, Yuan-chuang tells us, drew learned Brethren from distant places to it, and it seems that these men came chiefly to study the Vinaya. One of these great students was Vimalākṣha, popularly known as the "Dark eyed Vinaya-Master", a contemporary of Kumārajīva.²

POH-LU-KA

Our pilgrim continuing his narrative tells us that

from this (viz Kuchih city) a journey of above 600 *li* west across a small desert brought him to the *Poh lu ka* country. This was above 600 *li* from east to west by more than 300 *li* from north to south and its capital was five or six *li* in circuit. In general characteristics this country and its people resembled Kuchih and its people, but the spoken language differed a little. The fine cloth and serge of the district were esteemed by the neighbouring countries. There were some some tens of monasteries with above 1000 Brethren all adherents of the Sarvastivādin school.

A Chinese note to our text tells us that old names for *Poh-lu-la* were *Ki-mê* and *Ku-mê* in some

we have instead of this character another also read *yi*, viz 兒 Wu k'ung's transcription of the name is 阿延哩武

¹ Su kao seng chuan ch 2 (No 1493)

² K'ai yuan lu ch 3 (No 1480)

copies 汗 by mistake) This Ku-mî is found in the Han-Shu and is subsequent histories as the name of a state to the west of Kuchih. It had a capital called Nan ch'ing or "South city", and it yielded copper, iron, and orpiment.¹ M. V. de St. Martin makes Ku-mî or Poh lu ka correspond to the modern district of Aksu and this identification has been adopted by others. Some Chinese writers identify it with the modern Bai city (拜城), while others more correctly regard it as represented by the present Yurgun or Khara yungun (哈拉玉爾津), the Karayulghan or Khara-yungun of our maps, which is within the political district of Aksu.² It seems that Yuan chuang was the first to use this name Poh-lu ka, and it is known only through these Records and the Life, for the "T'ang Shu" evidently derived its information direct from the Records.³ The explanation of its use is apparently simple. The Ku-mî of the Histories transcribes the Turkish word Kum (or Qum) which means "sand" or "a desert", a word of frequent occurrence in names of places in Central Asia. Then the Buddhist Brethren from India substituted for Kum its Sanskrit equivalent Baluka which in our pilgrim's transcription became Poh lu ka.

The word translated in the above passage by "cloth" is *tich* in the B text and *chan* or "felt" in the C and D texts. The latter in the sense of "woollen cloth" is probably here, as in other passages, the correct reading, and it was the reading in the text of the Record used by the compiler of the "T'ang Shu". It was the fine woollen fabrics of this district which were held in esteem by the surrounding countries.

¹ Chien Han Shu ch 96 Wei Shu, ch 102 where Ku me is a dependency of Ku tse.

² Hsin ch'iang ch 1, 3. According to this treatise the "small desert" is the modern *Ch'a erh chih lo*, the Charchik of our maps. See Proceedings of R. G. S. Vol XII, No 2, p 86.

³ T'ang Shu ch 221. But the Poh lu ka (婆樓迦) or Baluka of the Ta fang t'eng ta chi ch'ang ch 55 (No 62) is evidently the Baluka of our text.

THE ICE MOUNTAIN AND CLEAR LAKE.

The pilgrim goes on to relate that

going north-west from Poh-lu-ka above 800 *li* passing along (or crossing) a stony desert he came to the *Ling-shan* (Ice Mountain). This was the north beginning of the Ts'ang-Lang and most of the streams from it flowed east. The gorges of the mountain accumulated snow and retained their coldness spring and summer and although there was the periodical melting the freezing set in immediately, the path was dangerous, cold winds blew fiercely. There were many troubles from savage dragons who molested travellers those going by this road could not wear red clothes or carry calabashes or make a loud noise; a slight provocation caused immediate disaster, fierce winds burst forth and there were flying sand and showers of stones, those who encountered these died, life could not be saved. A journey of over 400 *li* brought the pilgrim to a great clear lake above 1000 *li* in circuit, longer from east to west than from north to south. The lake had hills on all sides and was the meeting-place for various streams, its waters were of a deep azure hue and had a sharp brackish taste; it was a vast expanse with tumultuous billows. Fish and dragons lived in it pell-mell, and supernatural prodigies appeared in it occasionally. So travellers prayed for good luck, and although fish abounded no one would venture to catch them.

From the *Life* we learn that Yuan-chuang was seven days in crossing the Ice Mountain, and from the *Fang-chih* we learn that he travelled in a western direction across it. The term which he uses for the Ice Mountain is *Ling-shan* (凌山), *ling* being the classical word for "ice". The modern Chinese name is *Ping-shan* with the same meaning, the Turkish designation being Musur-dabghan. According to the *Life* the mountain was high as the heavens and covered with eternal snow, and the Pass was extremely difficult and hazardous on account of its blocks of ice and masses of rock. Our pilgrim's *Ling-shan* regarded as a Pass has been identified with the present Muzart or Ice-Pass, and there is much in favour of this identification although there are also difficulties in the way of its acceptance. Thus our pilgrim says he went north-west from the Kum or Kharayurgun district, but

the Muzart is due north of that M St Martin, accordingly, has to change the direction of the pilgrim's route and he tells us that 'Hiouen tsiang en quittant Po lou li (Alsou) se porte au nord vers de grandes montagnes qui forment, dit il, l'angle (l'extrémité) septentrionale des monts Tsong ling"¹ Some Chinese writers on the subject also describe the great mountain range south of Ili as the north "corner" (or "beginning") of the Tsung Ling But the Musur dabghan is said to belong to a different range not to the Tsung Ling The Muzart was and perhaps still is used by the traders passing between Kulja (Ili) and the districts of Kashgar, Yarkhand and Khoten It is still very difficult and hazardous to cross the Muzart from the south side and the trading caravans go from Kashgar to Kulja by other Passes and take this one only on the return journey Moreover our pilgrim's account of his journey over the *Ling shan* Pass agrees well with the descriptions we have of the Muzart But the Pass by which he crossed the great mountain may have been the Bedal or one between that and the Muzart or he may have gone north to the last and then in a westerly direction over the mountain to the "great clear lake"

A note to the text here tells us that this lake was the Hot Sea (熱海) and Salt Sea (鹹海) of others It is the Issik kul or Hot Lake of the Turkic speaking people and the Temurtu nor or Ferruginous Lake of the Mongols It is explained that the water of the Lake is not actually hot but that the Lake was called 'Hot Sea' because although girt by snow clad mountains its waters never froze It was called Temurtu nor on account of the abundant presence of flakes of iron brought down by the tributary streams³

¹ Juhen III. p 266

² Hsin chiang chs 1 3 4

³ See Reclus L'Asie Russe p 300 Proc^s R. G. S. Vol XVIII p 249 Hsin chiang chs 1 4 Tung chuen kang mu ch 41 Sven

* Hedins Through Asia Vol II p 808 Description of Issik Kul in Schuyler's Turkestan Vol II p 198

It will be noticed that the information which our pilgrim gives about this "great clear lake" is such as might have been acquired without a personal visit. Comparing the combined accounts of the Records and the Life with the descriptions given by later travellers, we are perhaps justified in at least doubting whether the pilgrim actually reached the Issik-kul. Other travellers, Chinese and western, agree in describing this lake as being actually hot, at least near the banks, the only parts accessible until lately. No mention, however, is made either in the Records or the Life of the nature of the banks, of the tribes who lived on them, or of the vestiges of a former state of affairs. In connection with the statement that no one dared to fish in the lake we may recall the fact that the Syrians forbade any interference with the large tame fish in the river Chalos, regarding the fish as divine.¹ Our pilgrim was evidently told that the Lake was the abode of mysterious powerful supernatural beings easily excited and supposed to be malevolent. It was by these creatures that the waters, even when there was no wind, were agitated, and monstrous billows put in motion. Through fear of these unseen beings also, apparently, the people of the district did not dare to fish in the Lake.

Yuan-chuang here makes the Issik-kul to be above 1000 *li* in circuit, and the Life makes it 1400 or 1500 *li* in circuit, but some other Chinese authorities represent it as only a few hundred *li* in circuit.

The pilgrim goes on to relate that

[from] Issik kul going north west he travelled above 500 *li* to the city of the *Su she* water which was six or seven *li* in circuit. It was inhabited by traders and Tartars (*Hu*) from various districts, the country yielded millet, wheat grapes but trees were sparse, its climate was regular and its winds cold, the people wore woollen (felt and serge) clothing. To the west of *Su she* were some tens of isolated cities each with its own governor but all under the rule of the Turks.

¹ Xenophon Anab. A. IV. 9

The translators seem to have understood the first words of the text of this passage as meaning that the pilgrim following the north side of Issik kul went north west 500 *li* from it. But the Lase gives the direction as "north west following the Lake". Then Ma Tuan lin, whose inspiration was derived from the Records, does not mention the 'Clear lake' and places the 'Su she water City' 500 *li* north west from the Ling shan¹. It seems to me that we must regard the pilgrim as coming out from the Ice Mountain on the south side of the Lake and going on keeping the Lake on his right hand travelling north west 500 *li* to the city of the *Su she* water. The name of this "water" or river is written 素葉 but we are told that the second character is to be read *she* and not *ye*, and Juhen corrected his "Su-ye" to 'Su che', that is Sushe or Susa. We do not seem to know of this city at least by this name, except through our pilgrim's narrative although we find mention of another *Su she* river. We read in the history of the Tang dynasty of a city to the east of the *Hot Lake* called Sui ye (or she) (碎葉) and this is taken by Dr Bretschneider and others, Chinese included, to be the *Su she* of the present passage². But this Sui she city did not come into existence until A D 679 when it was built by the Chinese³. The expression used is chu Sui she cheng (築碎葉城) 'build the Sui she city, but the words have been taken to mean that the Chinese built a fort at Sui she. This city was apparently substituted for Yenki as one of the Four Stations under the Chief Resident of An hsi we have mention of it being restored to that position in the year A D 692 and in 748 it was destroyed. The Tang Shu mentions the *Sui she* valley (川) 80 *li* from the mouth of which was the city of General Pei Lo (裴羅), and 40 *li* west from it was the *Sui she* city, on the north of this was the river with the same name and 40 *li* north of it

¹ Ch 336

² Med Res Vol 1 p 927

³ Tung chien kang mu ch 41 (Tang Kao Tsung Tiao li 1st year)

was the *Ku tan* (羊昌丹) hill, the spot at which the Khans of the Ten surnames were crowned¹ This city seems to have disappeared ever since the T'ang period Its remains are supposed by some to exist at a place on the north side of the Issik-kül, but this does not suit the position of the city with reference to the Lake The Su-she for our text was apparently situated to the west of Issik-kül, south of Tokmak, and not very far to the north-west of the Son-kul Modern Chinese maps place in that neighbourhood a river called *Su-sa ma-êrh* (蘇薩瑪而), that is perhaps, "Susa water" In some of our maps this river appears as "Susamir" a name also given to a range of mountains in the neighbourhood In some old maps of the Persian empire at the height of its greatness we find to the north of Samarkand a town called "Teras" and north east from it a river "Sosechi" Further it is to be observed that some Chinese geographers understand *Su-she shui* to be an old name for the Issik-kül² At the time of our pilgrim's visit the Su-she river and its city had been a part of the great Persian empire, and we may with some probability take the name Su she to be for Susa, transferred from the old Susa "by Choaspes' amber stream, the drink of none but Kings". Professor Hirth, who considers the Su she of our text to be the Su she of the Tang History, restores the name Su-she as Sujab³ He writes *Su ye* and *Sui ye*, and if the latter term is regarded as a Chinese name his transcription of the characters may be correct But the former is a foreign word read *Su-she*, and our pilgrim's *Su she shui* may possibly correspond to the Sujab of Tabari quoted by Dr Hirth

¹ Ch 43 The "General Pei Lo" of this passage is perhaps the civil official Pei Hing chien (親行儉) who caused a general to build the city

² Hsin chiang ch 1 where the expression is *Su sheh chuan* (川)

³ Nachworte z Inschrift d Tonjukuk S 71 and cf S 73 75 (Die Alt-Türkischen Inschriften d Mongolen, Radloff)

SU-LI

The pilgrim adds—

From the city of the Su she water to the Kasanna country the territory and its inhabitants are called *Su li*. This name is applied also to the language and the writing of the people. The letters of their language are only 20 (in the B text 30) odd which have come to produce a vast vocabulary. They read their writing vertically. Teacher transmits instruction to his successor in unbroken continuity. Their garments, which are tight-fitting, are felt (in B *tich*) and serge for inside and skins and wool (or Cotton *tich*) outside. They cut the hair even leaving the top of the head exposed, some shave off all the hair, and they bind the forehead with a silk band. They are of large stature but of a cowardly disposition. They are treacherous and deceitful in their ways and very avaricious. Father and son scheme for gain. Wealth gives eminence. There is no distinction between the well-born and the low born. One who is extremely rich may live on poor food and wear coarse clothing. The people are half and half traders and farmers.

The country and people here called *Su li* (蘇利) are apparently almost unknown, at least by this name. I-ching several times mentions a region and people which he calls *Su-li* (蘇利) and this word is probably the *Su-li* of our passage. But whereas Yuan-chuang restricts his name to a small defined district, I-ching seems to use his *Su-li* as a general name for the northern extra-India people called *Hu* (胡) or at least for a main division of the *Hu*.¹ So also in his Sanskrit-Chinese Vocabulary I-ching gives *Sali* transcribed *Su li* as the Sanskrit equivalent for *Hu*. The transcription for *Sali* is generally *Su-li* but in one place it is, perhaps by mistake, *Sunlin*. As to what *Sali* or *Su-li* means we seem to be left in ignorance. Alberuni mentions a country *Sulka* which he places in the north, and another *Sulka* which he puts in the north west, but the latter name, which is taken from the *Bihāt-Samhitā*

¹ Nan hai ch i kwei Chs 9, 10, 25, and Takakusu pp 49, 68, 69, 119

should perhaps be read *Muhl* ¹ It seems probable that the *Su li* of our pilgrim corresponds to the "Sarts" of later times This is a term applied we are told, by the nomads of Central Asia to all dwellers in towns and villages without regard to race or origin But, according to M de Ujfalvy the Tajiks are not counted as Sarts These Tajiks it is important to remember are Iranians (Eramians) of three kinds (1) indigenous Iranians, (2) Persian colonists, and (3) the descendants of Persian slaves It is interesting to compare M de Ujfalvy's 'Carte ethnographique de l'Asie centrale' with Yuan chuang's narrative and the description of the *Su li* with that of the Sarts ² But although the descriptions may correspond it does not seem right to regard *Su li* as a transcription of Sarts Like another word to be noticed hereafter it may stand for the Turkic *Suluq* in the sense of "having water", a term which seems to be very appropriate to at least a portion of the *Su li* region but not to all We should probably regard the pilgrim's statement that the country was called *Su li* as a mistake and the name should perhaps be regarded as applying only to the inhabitants and their language

THOUSAND SPRINGS

Returning to the text of our Records we read that a journey of above 400 *li* westward from "Su she city" brought the pilgrim to the "Thousand Springs" The district with this name was above 200 *li* square it had Snowy mountains on its south side and level land on the other sides it had a rich mouldy soil and trees everywhere in the latter part of spring the place was an embroidery of flowers There were a thousand springs and ponds and hence the name of the district, the Khan of the Turks came here every year to escape the summer heat The place contained flocks of tame deer many of which wore bells and rings the deer were cherished by the Khan who forbade the slaughter of any of them under the penalty of capital punishment and so the deer lived their natural lives

¹ Alberuni Vol I pp 300 302 Ind Ant. Vol XXII p 190

² Le Kohistan Le Ferghanah et Kouldja pp 69 187

From the *Li* we learn that the local native name of this charming district, here called *Ch'ien Chuan* (千 泉), was *Ping yü* (平 于). This evidently represents *Bing ghyul* which is the Turkic equivalent for *Ch'ien chuan* or "Thousand Springs". There is little mention of the district bearing this name in Chinese literature. We find it stated in the history of the Sui dynasty that in the year A. D. 619 the *She hu k'han* of the West Turks removed his Court to the Thousand Springs described as being to the north of the *Shih* (石), that is Tashkend country.¹ Moreover in the XIIth *chuan* of these Records we are told that the *Tsung Ling* range 'extended on the north to the Hot sea (the *Issik kul*) and Thousand Springs'.

Mr. Schuyler finds the district here named Thousand Springs in the country to the north of the Alexandrofsky range and between *Aulikat* and *Ak su*. Of his journey from the former of these two places to the latter he writes—"All along my right was the beautiful Alexandrofsky range, with many of its summits then white with snow. At almost every step I crossed rivulets trickling down from the hills, showing well the truth of the old name, 'the thousand sources'."² With this we may compare Dr. Bretschneider's opinion—"Vivien de St. Martin, in his geographical notes appended to *Stan Julien's* translation of *Hsüan Tshang's* narrative identifies *Ts'ients'uan* with a place *Ming bulak*, south of *Lake Karakul*, thus carrying the traveller far north west, and then locates his *Ta lo-sz* between the aforesaid lake and the *Jaxartes*. But this view is untenable. *Ming bulak* meaning 'Thousand Springs' in Mongol and other languages of the East is a quite frequent name for places in Mongolia and Central Asia. It seems to me that the Thousand Springs of the Chinese traveller, bordered on the south by snowy mountains, whilst on the other sides all was level land must be rather looked for somewhere on the northern slope of the high

¹ See *Tung chien kang mu ch* 38 (sui Kung Ti 2^d year)

² *Turkistan Vol II* p. 123

mountain stretching from Lake Issik kùl westward, and marked on Russian maps as *Alexander's Cham*¹

THE KHAN

Before leaving this district we must take notice of the short description which the Life gives of the pilgrim's meeting with the Khan of the Turks

It relates that at the Su she water city called here the *Su she* city the pilgrim met with the Turk Sheh lu Khan then on a hunting expedition. His military equipment, we are told, was very grand. The Khan wore a green satin robe, his hair which was ten feet long was free; a band of white silk was wound round his forehead hanging down behind. The ministers of the presence above 200 in number all wearing embroidered robes and with plaited hair stood on his right and left. The rest of his military retinue clothed in fur, serge and fine wool, the spears and standards and bows in order and the riders of camels and horses stretched far away out of ken. The Khan was delighted to meet Yuan chuang and invited him to stay in the encampment during his absence which would be only for two or three days, giving him into the charge of a Minister of the presence named Ha mo chih. After three days the Khan returned and Yuan chuang was taken to his tent. The gold embroidery of this grand tent shone with a dazzling splendour, the ministers of the presence in attendance sat on mats in long rows on either side all dressed in magnificent brocade robes while the rest of the retinue on duty stood behind. You saw that although it was a case of a frontier ruler yet there was an air of distinction and elegance. The Khan came out from his tent about thirty paces to meet Yuan chuang who after a courteous greeting entered the tent. As the Turks are fire-worshippers they do not use wooden seats, we are told, as wood has the principle of fire and they use double mats as seats, but for the pilgrim the Khan provided an iron framed bench with a mattress. After a short interval envoys from China and Kao-chang were admitted and presented their despatches and credentials which the Khan perused. He was much elated and caused the envoys to be seated, then he ordered wine and music for himself and them and grape syrup for the pilgrim. Hereupon all pledged each other and the filling and passing and draining of the winecups made a din and bustle while the mingled music of various

¹ Med. Res. Vol. I p. 238 note

instruments rose loud although the airs were the popular strains of foreigners yet they pleased the senses and exhilarated the mental faculties. After a little, piles of roasted beef and mutton were served for the others, and lawful food such as cakes, milk, candy, honey, and grapes for the pilgrim. After the entertainment grape-syrup was again served and the Khan invited Yuan-chuang to improve the occasion, whereupon the pilgrim expounded the doctrines of the "ten virtues", compassion for animal life, and the Paramitas and emancipation. The Khan raising his hands bowed and gladly believed and accepted the teaching. He detained the pilgrim some days and wanted to keep him permanently. "You need not go to the *In t'c'ka* country", he urged, "that land is very hot, its 10th month being as the 5th of this place, judging from your appearance I fear you will not survive a visit, its people are contemptible being black and uncivilized. But the pilgrim replied that notwithstanding all this he wanted to seek the traces of the Buddha and learn his religious system. Then the Khan sought out among his retainers a young man who had spent some years in Ch'ang an and could speak Chinese and other languages. This young man he made *Mo-to ta huan* and appointed him to go with the pilgrim as far as Kaji-stet entrusting him also with despatches about the pilgrim. The Khan, moreover, gave Yuan-chuang a dark red silk monk's suit and fifty webs (*p'it* 疋) of soft silk, and he and his ministers escorted the pilgrim above ten *li* on his way.

The "Sheh-hu Khan" of this passage was probably a relative of that *To lu* (咄 陸) Khan of the West Turks who died in A. D. 635. His title is written *Ye-hu* (葉 護), in other places also 葉 護, but we are always told that the characters are to be read *Sheh-hu*. This term, which is of very frequent occurrence in historical works treating of the Turks, is generally interpreted as meaning *ta-ch'ên* (大 臣) or "high official". We are told that it denoted the highest rank of Turkish officials under the Khan, and the person bearing this title was usually a son, brother, or other near relative of the Khan¹. He was commonly the satrap or governor of a Province, but we read also of the Right and Left Shehhu at the Khan's court². There

¹ Ma I I ch 343 344

² Ma I I ch 347 T'angshu ch 217 Here it is Uigour dignitaries who style themselves "Left and Right Sheh hu". In the *Life*

is much probability in the supposition that the word represents the old Turkic Yabgu or Jabgu found in certain old inscriptions and this word also denotes a viceroy or Governor¹

For the words "his military equipment was very grand" the Chinese is *Jung ma-chen sheng* (戎馬甚盛) which Julien translates—"Les chevaux de ces barbares étaient extrêmement nombreux." This rendering seems to be faulty and to spoil the description. *Jung ma* is originally a "war horse" and the term is used in this sense in classical literature. Then it came to denote the army and all the material equipment for a war and it is also used to denote "a campaign" a "state of active warfare". As the context here shews the pilgrim found reason to admire the army which attended the Khan and the army included soldiers mounted on elephants and horses along with standard bearers and others. It seems better accordingly to translate the clause by some such words as "his military equipment was magnificent." In the Records we find the expression *Jung ma-chiang hêng* (兵馬強盛) with a similar meaning.

As to the Khan's hair the D text makes it to have

also we have the Governor of Tokhara assuming the title of "Sheh hu" (Life ch'o Julien I p. 250) The pilgrim seems to have made a distinction between the "Sheh hu Khan" or Governor of several Provinces and the "Sheh hu" the Governor of one Province under the former. This distinction however is not strictly observed by him and it seems to be unknown to others.

¹ Thomsen's Inscriptions de l'Orkhon p. 10^o 14^o 19^o Hirth's Nachworte &c op. c. S. 22 43

Two examples may suffice. In the 46th chapter of the Tao-te-ching we find the draught horse of peace and the *Jung ma* or "war horse" used in an illustration of the effects of good government and of disorder respectively. The words of this passage *Jung ma sheng-jia chiao* (戎馬生干郊) "the war steeds are born on the wild frontiers" often shortened to *Jung-ma tsai-chiao* are often used to denote the existence of a state of border warfare. Then "in the midst of war" is expressed by 在戎馬之間

been above ten feet long,¹ but the C text, which Julien seems to have had, was taken by him to mean that it was the silk band which was ten feet long. This reading, however, is evidently wrong, the word 以 (以), as the parallel clause shews, being an improper interpolation

The term here rendered "Ministers of the presence" is *ta-kuan* (達官) for which Julien gives "officiers" and "officiers de haut rang," but neither of these is so good as his discarded rendering "officiers introducteurs" In a Chinese Sanskrit Vocabulary this word is given as the equivalent of the Sanskrit word *Sammata* in the sense of "held in esteem" or "honoured" It is also given as the rendering of the Sanskrit *Amantrayitā* and of the Turkish equivalent *Tasrifatçı* But the word, which is also written *Ta kan* (達干) is evidently, as has been conjectured, the Turkish word *Taikhān* or *Darghān* The *Ta-kuan* or *Taikhān* were not necessarily officials of high degree, but they were men whom the Khan delighted to honour, who attended him on state occasions and introduced those summoned or invited to his presence They had the right of entry to the Khan's presence, and they had also the privilege of sitting in his presence at an audience, banquet, or other state function² When the pilgrim is leaving, the Khan, as we have seen, appoints a young retainer to be *Mo-to* (摩咄)-*ta luan* and accompany the pilgrim to Kapis This word *Moto*, which we sometimes find used as if it were a personal name, is perhaps for the Turkish word *Mutarjinn* which means 'an interpreter'.

The words here rendered "spears and standards" are *sho-tu* (槊 箭), but it seems to be possible that the writer used them in the sense of 'raised standard'. The word *tu* is the Turkish *tugh*, a standard formed by a long pole surmounted by a receptacle containing a yak's tail This

¹ Cf Ogilby's *Persia* p 81

² De Courteille *Dict Turk* or • p 318 Hirth, op c p 55 Thomsen op c ps 59, 185 Schlegel, *Die Chin Ins ad d Uigur Denkmäl*, § 9 et al

standard was one of the insignia of relatives of the Khan and distinguished military officers.

The author of the *Life* tells us, we have seen, that the Khan had a fine bearing and presence "although he was a frontier ruler." In the original the words for "frontier ruler" are *K'ung-lu-chih-chun* (穹廬之君) which Julien translates—"un prince barbare, abrité sous une tente de feutre", which seems to be a double translation. *K'ung-lu* is a well-known literary term for *Pien-tu* or "border land" as contrasted with *Shên-chou* or China. But it is also used to denote "a felt tent," and then "an encampment," "camp life".¹ As *K'ung* means "vast" or "lofty" and *lu* means a "hut" or "cottage" we may with some probability regard the compound in the sense of a "felt tent" as a foreign word. We find it also written *Kung-lu* (弓廬) and these two terms may perhaps represent the Turkish word *Kulube* which means a "tent of felt." But in phrases like that of our text the term should perhaps be regarded as having the signification of "outlying," that is, "barbarous territory."

We come next to the words here loosely rendered by "the mingled music of various instruments." These are *K'in-mei-tou* (or *tu*)-*li* (琴琵琶離) which Julien renders—"la musique des barbares du midi et du nord, de l'orient et de l'occident," but this is evidently not correct. We know that the old term for the music of the north barbarians was *kin* (琴), for that of the East barbarians *mei* (琵琶 or 琴), for that of the southern barbarians *jen* (任), and for that of the west barbarians *chu-li* (株離).² It will be seen that our passage has not the word *jen*, and that its characters are not those of the rest of the description here quoted. A glossary to the passage tells

¹ *Ku-shih-yuan* (古詩原) ch. 6 and ch. 2: *Ch'ien Han-shu* ch. 96. *Jih-chih-lu* (日知錄) ch. 29. With the description of the Khan given in our text we may compare Master A. Jenkinson's account of Solyman the Great Turke in Hakluyt's *Principall Voyages*, &c. p. 81 (2nd ed.)

² *Ma T. I.* ch. 148. *Kanghsi Dict.* s. v. 株.

us that *k'in mei* is the name of a barbarian music, and our *tu li* is the recognized transcription of the Sanskrit word *turya* meaning 'music' This last word had been known to the Chinese for some centuries before Yuan-chuang's time It is possible the *k'in, mei*, and *tu li* of our passage may be the *k'in, mei*, and *ch'u li* of other books and that the words are used here in a peculiar manner Our four characters may thus mean simply 'the music of the foreign instruments' or something similar

It will be noticed that among the 'pure food' of which the pilgrim partakes at the Khan's banquet was a preparation of milk In taking this he was not acting in strict accordance with Mahayana discipline, and I ching states positively that milk was not a lawful article of food to a bhikshu¹

When the feast was over the pilgrim, at the Khan's request, as we have seen, gave him an exposition of some of the leading features of Buddhism The first in the list of subjects is the *shih shan* (十善) or 'Ten Virtues' that is, the ten excellent precepts which the Mahayanaist undertook to observe These were not to kill, not to steal not to commit impurity, not to be false in language, not to be double tongued not to use bad language, not to use fine glossing speech not to covet, not to be angry, not to take heretical views²

The narrative in the *Life* with which we are now concerned gives us a very interesting picture of that strange people called by the Chinese *Tu lue*, Turks This people had a remarkable but short career the main incidents of which are well known In the 5th century of our era the Turks were slaves in the iron mines and forges of another tribe, the *Juan Juan* or *Niu yen*, on the south of the Gold mountain near the modern Barkul They rebelled against their masters and were successful Their dash and prowess soon made them a power, and they harried the surrounding

* 1 Nan hai chi kuei ch 1

2 Fa kie tzu ti chu men c/ 1 (No 1042)

regions to the borders of China. Then we find a king in China sending an envoy to them in A D 545 and this is the first appearance of the Turks in Chinese history.¹ A few (24) years afterwards envoys from the rulers of Persia and the Roman Empire arrived at the seat of government of these Turks.² About this time also the Wei king in China received and entertained magnificently a Turkish ambassador with a large suite at Chang an-foo and gave a princess to the Khan in marriage. The splitting up of the great Turkish host occurred a few years afterwards, about the end of the sixth century, and the term 'West Turks' began to be used from that time. The power of the Turks grew rapidly until it extended from Liao-tung to the West (Caspian) Sea, but within little more than two centuries it passed away.

The account of the Khan and his doings here reminds one of descriptions of Persian chiefs in other books, and this Khan seems to be in some respects rather Persian than Turkish. We see him, for example, like a satrap, a Persian 'Prefectus Provincia,' practising his soldiers in hunting, and the chase is with him apparently a military exercise. The "Thousand Springs" was a Paradise with plenty of water, thickly grown with trees and full of wild animals. The pretty story in the Records about the deer in this place going about free and secure, adorned with bells and rings, shews us that the Khan did not hunt merely for the game to be taken. But the story may be a misinterpretation of an old Persian custom to which the Khan adhered. Of this custom we find mention by Ogilby in the following passage—"In the beginning of the month *Ramadhan*, which is our Lent, the king goes to *Abicunong* in the mountains to take the fresh air, and to hunt, in which sport he spends several days, attended by some thousands of people. At the ears of those beasts which the king takes alive he hangs golden plates, on which are

¹ Tung chien kang mu, ch 32 p 62

² Gibbon Decline and Fall, ch xlv

engraven certain marks, and then setting them at liberty again, often he retakes them, and some have been taken who have had the marks of king Thamās Ismail Sefi and other ancient princes '1

The Life represents the West Turks as fire worshippers and as abstaining from the use of wooden seats on account of their reverence for the element of fire inherent in wood. But here there is evidently a mistake. The Persians were fire worshippers, but we read of the Turks as worshipping the "blue heaven," their ancestors, and other objects, and as miners and blacksmiths they cannot have been fire worshippers. But it is acknowledged that some at least of the Turks, perhaps under Persian influence became worshippers of fire and a Turkish tribe, the Karakirghiz although nominally Mahometan still adheres to rites of the old worship². The Turks at the Su-sho city sat cross legged on mats or cushions because it was their custom. Out of consideration for the Chinese guest the Khan ordered a bench for him such as was used by Buddhist monks. In like manner the king of Hyrcan in 1666 shewed courtesy to Mr A. Jenkinson when the latter was presented to him. The king "kept his court at that time in the high mountains in tents", he was "richly apparelled with long garments of silke and cloth of golde imbrodered with pearls and stone". Mr Jenkinson proceeds—"Thus the king with his nobilitie sitting in his pavilion with his legs acrosse and perceiving that it was painefull for me so to sit, his highnesse caused a stoole to be brought in and did will me to sit thereupon after my fashion"³.

¹ Ogilby's Persia p 79

² Schuyler's Turkistan Vol. II p 187

³ Hakluyt op c p 367

CHAPTER IV.

CHUAN I CONT'D

TARAS TO KAPIS

The account in the Records proceeds to relate that from Bing-ghyul or Thousand Springs the pilgrim continued his journey westward and after going 140 or 150 *li* he arrived at the city of *Ta-lo-ssü*. This city was eight or nine *li* in circuit here traders and Tartars (or trading Tartars) from other countries lived pell mell in natural products and climate the city much resembled *Su-she*.

The *Ta-lo-ssü* of this passage is undoubtedly the Taras or Talas of several old writers and travellers. Dr Bretschneider, properly rejecting M. Saint-Martin's identification of Taras, is disposed to place the site of the city near that of the present Aulé-ata on the river Taras, and Dr Schuyler is of the same opinion.¹ This seems to be correct enough for practical purposes, but the old Taras (or Talas) was probably some miles to the south-east of the modern town Aulé-ata. It should be added that while the distance between *Su-she* and Taras in this passage is 540 *li* the distance between the *Sui-ye* city and Taras is given elsewhere as only 310 *li*.²

Our narrative proceeding tells us that above ten *li* to the south of Taras was a small isolated town inhabited by above 300 Chinese. These men had originally been taken captive by the Turks and carried off to this district they had afterwards

¹ Med. Res. Vol. I. p. 18 note and p. 228 note. See Schuyler's *Turkistan* Vol. II. p. 120

² *T'ang-Shu*, ch. 43 and 221.

banded together and had settled in and fortified this town they had then changed their style of dress for that of the Turks but they had still retained their native speech and ways of life

In connection with these statements it will be remembered that while Yuan chuang was at Su-she a Chinese envoy arrived and had audience of the Khan This may have been the envoy sent by the Emperor Tai Tsung in A.D 631 to obtain from the Turks the release of all their Chinese captives In the time of the Sui dynasty the Turks had invaded China, penetrating far into the country and carrying off many myriads of Chinese prisoners It was to ransom these that the great Emperor sent his ambassador to the Khan in the year mentioned The historian tells us that the number of men, women, and children released from captivity among the Turks on this occasion was above 80000 Among those thus happily restored to their homes were probably the 300 Chinese of this little town near Taras¹

PAI-SHUI-CH'ENG

Proceeding on his journey and going in a south west direction for above 200 *li* from the little Chinese town the pilgrim reached the *Pai shui ch'eng* or "White water city" This was six or seven *li* in circuit, and the district excelled Taras in fertility of soil and in climate

As we learn from other sources this was a well-watered region with a rich fertile soil² Long ago Rémusat identified this "White water city" with the "Isfidjab" or "Esfidjab" of Arabian writers, this name also meaning "White water"³ M St Martin adopts this identification and it has been generally followed Then this "Isfidjab" has been declared to be the *Sairam* which is now, Dr Brietschneider tells us, "a little town in Russian Turkestan, north-east of Tashkend and about 6½ (but in another

¹ Tung chuen kang mu ch 39 (Tang-Tai Tsung's 5th year).

² Tang shu ch 221

³ Rech Lang Tart p 256

place he says 13) English miles east of Chumkend". It is perhaps better, however to find the representative of the *Pai shui cheng* of Yuan chuang in the modern Man kent This town which is also called Ak su or 'White water' is about 15 miles to the north east of Chumkend This last town is also regarded by some as being on or near the site of the "White water city"

KUNG YU

Continuing to travel south west our pilgrim went on from "White water city for more than 200 *li* and arrived at the city *Kung yu* or *Kung ya* (莽 御) which was five or six *li* in circuit In this district the downs and marshes had a rich loamy soil and were densely covered with forests

Of this city no one seems to know anything and even the name is not quite certain as instead of *Kung yu* we find in one authority *Kung chung* (莽 仲)² It is probable however, that this latter form is only a freak of a copyist and that the former is the correct reading As we find *Chuan cheng* (泉 城) or "City of the spring (or springs)" given as the name of this city we are probably justified in regarding *Kung yu* as standing for the Turkic word *Kuyu* which denotes a *well* or *spring* the native name of the city being *Kuyu shahr* It is remarkable that the *Fang chih* here does not mention the 'White water city' and makes *Kung yu* to be above 200 *li* to the south west of Taras or half the distance given by the pilgrim

NU CHIH KAN

Our pilgrim next proceeds to relate that a journey of 40 or 50 *li* south from *Kung yu* city brought him to the country of *Nu-chih kan* or *kan* (努 赤 建) This country was above 1000 *li* in circuit and it had a soil rich and fertile a dense vegetation and fruits and flowers in great luxuriance grapes were thought much of although plentiful There were a hundred odd cities

¹ *Med Res* Vol I p 74 and II p 91 See also Schuyler's *Turkistan* I p 70 and 303

² *Ma T i ch* 336

and towns each with its own governor but although the towns and their districts were mutually independent and distinct political divisions yet the collective name for all was the "Nu chih-lan Country"

Of a district in this region bearing the name Nu-chih-lan, perhaps pronounced like Nujhkend, little if anything seems to be known beyond what is recorded here by our author. M. Saint-Martin, however, writes of Nu-chih-lan thus—"Nous retrouvons indubitablement ce lieu dans la *Noudjkeh* (pour Noudjkend) mentionnée par le Mesalek-alabsar entre Taras et Khodjend, mais sans indication précise quant à l'emplacement"¹ This Nujhkend, it has been suggested, may possibly represent the Turkic compound Nujabahkend, meaning "the territory of the nobles", a restoration which seems to suit our pilgrim's description

CHE SHIH (TASHKEND)

The pilgrim goes on to state that from Nu chih lan going west above 200 li he came to the *Che shih* country This was above 1000 li in circuit, reaching on the west to the *She* (or *Ye*) river, being greater in extent from north to south than from east to west in natural products and climate it was like Nu chih lan its cities and towns were some tens in number, each with its own chief magistrate and without any general chief, but all subject to the Turks

The country here described has been long ago correctly identified with the modern Tashkend Our pilgrim calls it *Che shih* (赭時), as we are told to read the characters, or Chesh This is evidently the *Che she* (者舌)² of earlier writers with its capital *Che-chih* (赭支) the latter, Dr Hirth's "Tjadj," is also used to designate the country³ The name is also written *Che-chih* (柘支) and its capital *Che che* (柘折), and some western writers call the capital "Scket" The river of this country is here called *She* or *Ye* (孽) short for *Ye-ye* or *Ye she*, the Jaxartes Another

¹ Julien III p 276

² Tung chien kang mu, ch 25 Ma T i ch 338 and 339

³ Nachworte op c S 70

that Tashkend means "stone castle," while Dr Bretschneider says it means "stone city,"¹ and gives "stony country," as the translation of our Chesh. But there does not seem to be anything in the accounts of the city and district to justify the use of the epithets "stone" or "stony." The land was noted for its fertility and its grain crops made it the granary of the country among its products are enumerated cotton, silk, woollen stuffs and articles of leather. In Old Tashkend the dwelling houses are all made of mud, and the mosques and other stone buildings are built of what we may call second hand stones.² The names given to the city and district have a different explanation, and represent a proper name. This was the personal name of one of the nine members of a powerful family of the *Ge ti* or *Iue chih* (月支) nation. The head of the family, the eldest brother, was chief of the clan the members of which were known by their territorial designation *Shao-nu* (昭武), that being the name of their original home north of the *K'ü* lien or Celestial Mountains. When conquered by the *Hung-nu* (or, as some writers tell us by the Turks), and driven away from their native region they descended to the country between the *Tsung Lang* and the river *Oxus*, occupying *Kang ku* (Samarkand) and all the surrounding country. The head of the clan ruled in Samarkand and the other chiefs had principalities round about the metropolitan State, *Shih* or *Chesh* or *Tash* being the personal name of the brother who ruled over the district bearing this name. We even find *Che she* described as *Kang kü* or as a part of that country. In the 6th and 7th centuries also we find this district called the *An* (安) Country, *An* being the name of another of the *Shao wu* brothers, but this did not supplant the other name. Thus *Shih kuo* and *Tashkend* denote the country or domain of *Shih* or *Tash*.³

¹ Julien III p 246 *Mémoires* Vol II pag 55 et al

² Hellwald's *Centralasien* S 341, 361 397 Baber *Intr* p XL

³ See also Schuyler's *Turkistan ch* 3

⁴ *Tang shu* l c *Sui shu*, ch 83 *Ma T L l c* In the *Sui shu*

BETWEEN TASHKEND AND SAMARKAND.

C We now come to a part of the pilgrim's narrative which presents some serious difficulties. He relates that—

"From this (i. e. the Old Tashkend country) to the *Fei-han* country south-east is above 1000 *li*" This country, which was above 4000 *li* in circuit, was surrounded by mountains on all sides it had a rich productive soil with flowers and fruits in great quantity, and it produced sheep and horses it was windy and cold and the people were stout hearted in speech they differed from other countries, and they were ill-featured. For some tens of years the county had been without a sovereign, and the local chiefs struggled for superiority, their districts and cities were determined by rivers (川) and natural defences.

The country which Yuan-chuang here calls *Fei-han* has been identified with Ferghana, corresponding in some measure to the present Khanate of Khokand. Ferghana became known to the Chinese in the second century B. C. by the name *Ta-yuan* (大宛) its capital being *Kuei-shan* (犍山), probably pronounced *Kusan*.¹ Another old name for the country was *Kü-so* (俱搜) but this is perhaps only the name of the capital slightly altered.² In later times we find the country called *Po-han* (撥汗) or (全發汗) and *Pu-han-na* (拔汗那), and *Po-lo-na* (破洛那), and in A. D. 744 the Chinese imposed on it the designation *Ning yuan* (寧遠).³ The modern Chinese name is *Huo-han* (霍罕), in Cantonese *Foh-han*, which apparently represents the word Ferghana.⁴

Now the pilgrim does not expressly state that he actually visited *Fei-han*, but some readers of the Records have understood him as describing it from personal observation while others regard him as writing from hearsay. There

and the *Wei-shu* ch. 102 the surname of the king of this country.

¹ *Shi* or stone, but he does not belong to the Shao-wu clan.

² *Shih-chi*, ch. 123. In this work Kangkū is placed 2000 *li* north west from *Ta-yuan*. *Chien Han-shu* ch. 96

³ *Ma T. I.* ch. 338.

⁴ *Tang-shu*, ch. 221. *Tang-chien-kang-mu* ch. 20, 42, and 43.

⁵ *Ta-chung-i-tung-chih*, ch. 351; *Li-ko-yen-piao*, ch. 3.

are several circumstances in the narrative which seem to indicate that he did not visit the country called Ferghana. Thus he makes Fei-han to be 1000 *li* south-east from Tashkend, and this is double the distance, given in the Tang-shu and other works, of Ferghana from Tashkend. Then he describes his Fei-han as having mountains on all sides, but Ferghana was free from mountains on the west side. Moreover he represents the country as having been for above a score of years in a state of anarchy, an active rivalry for chieftainship going on among the various cities. But we know from Chinese history that within a few years of the pilgrim's visit to this region there was a king of Ferghana, that the king was murdered by the West Turks, and that he was succeeded on the throne by his son¹. The royal family belonged to the great Shao-wu clan. Thus we are apparently justified in regarding Yuan-chuang's account of the country as information derived from persons living outside of the district described.

The narrative proceeds—

From this (i. e. Fei-han) going west above 1000 *li* one comes (or, the pilgrim came) to the *Su tu li se na* country. This he describes as being 1400 *li* in circuit with the *She* (Jaxartes) river on its east. The *She* river rises in the north end of the Tsung Ling and flows north west a great muddy rapid stream. In natural products and popular ways *Su tu li se-na* resembled Tashkend: there was a king but he was under the Turks.

The name of the country here transcribed *Su-tu-li-se-na* (塞堵利瑟那) was perhaps a Sanskrit word like *Sutushan* meaning "happy," "easily satisfied," or *Sutrishna* which means "dry," "thirsty." It is apparently the same name which is transcribed *Su-tu shih-ni* (蘇都識匿), *Su-tu-sha-na*, and *Soh tu sha na*. Another name for the district was *Ka-pu-tan na* (劫布坦那), and it was called by the Chinese the "Tung Ts'ao (東魯) Country," Ts'ao being one of the Shao-wu brothers². This is evidently the "Se-

¹ Tang shu l c Ma T 11 c

² Tang shu, l c Ma T 11 c

troushteh' of Ibn Hukal who says the country has no navigable river but has "running streams and fountains and meadows and groves' with mines of gold, silver, copper, and sal ammoniac "It is a mountainous region, bounded on the east by part of Ferghana, on the west by the borders of Samarkand on the north by Chaje (i.e. Tashkend), on the south it lies near Kish"¹ M St Martin identifies the district with the Osrushna or Satrushna of Musulman writers the modern Uratupe or Uratepe, the Ura Tube of our maps. The identification is evidently practically correct and the distance and direction of Ura Tube agree with the pilgrim's account. But the *Life* which does not mention Ferhan, makes Yuan chuang go from Tashkend direct to Sutrishan which it places 1000 li west from Tashkend. Here there is evidently a mistake due apparently to the accidental omission of Ferhan. In some Chinese works Sutrishan is placed 500 li² and in some 400 li³ to the west of Ferghana and adjacent to Tashkend on the north.

The narrative in the Records proceeds—

North west from the Sutrishan country you enter a great desert destitute of water and vegetation a vast blank where only by following the mountains and observing the skeletons can the course be directed. Going above 500 li you reach the *Sa mei lan* country.

The *Life* agrees with this account in representing the pilgrim as going north west from Sutrishan 500 li through a great sandy desert to the *Sa mei(or mo) kan* country. This is as has been shown long ago the Samarkand of history. Now it is quite true that there is a great sandy desert to the north west of the Ura Tube country, but one could not reach Samarkand going north west from that country. M St Martin does not help us here for he carelessly makes the pilgrim put Samarkand to the south.

¹ Oriental Geography (tr Ouselev) pp 261 263

² Julien III p 278

³ Tung-chih hao I c.

⁴ Tang shu I c

of Sutrishan or Ura Tube His words on this subject are—"D'Auratpe ou Asrouchna i Samarkand la distance est d'environ 45 lieues au sud sudouest Hiouen thsang marque 500 (37 lieues) de *Sou tou li se-na* a *Sa mo kien* en marchant au sud"¹ In a note to the passage with which we are now engaged Julien apparently makes a mistake in stating that M St Martin would substitute *south west* for the *north west* of the text Bretschneider quotes this note and declares the change to be unnecessary He, however, gets over the difficulty of the text by cutting out the important but puzzling words "*going above 500 li you come to the Sa-mei kan country*" A traveller proceeding to Samarkand from Ura-Tube would perhaps go north-west as far as Jizak and then turn south west, performing a journey of about 120 miles The fact that Yüan chuang does not seem to have known of the springs of bad blackish water in the northern part of the desert he describes might lead one to think that if he made the journey between the two places he skirted the southern side of the desert This inference would be strengthened by the mention of mountains and of course by the direction mentioned, viz north west

But taking all circumstances into consideration we must rather decide to regard the whole passage beginning with—"From this above 1000 *li* to Feilian," and ending with "going above 500 *li* you come to Sa mei kan" to be an account obtained from others, and not the result of a personal visit We should, accordingly, perhaps regard the pilgrim as going direct from Tashkend to Samarkand From this point of view our text must be regarded here as defective and the last clause of our passage should read—"From Tashkend going above 500 *li* south west he came to the Sa mei kan country" The distance seems to be too short, but we find that it agrees with accounts given in other Chinese works²

* 1 Julien III. p 29

2 e g in the Tang shu l c

SAMARKAND

The country at which Yuan chuang now arrived is called by him *Sa mo* (or *mei*) *lan* (or *lan*) (罽特建) a name which has been taken to represent 'Samarkand'. We may however regard the region indicated by the term Samokan country to be identical with the Samarkand district without holding that the two names are identical. According to popular accounts the name Samarkand was derived from an Arabian hero and was not given to the city in this district until about A D 643. In Chinese literature this name does not appear until the time of the Mongols. It was introduced by them and it was explained as an Arabian word meaning *fan hua* (繁華) that is *lustling, full of life thronged*¹.

A note to our text tells us that the Samokan country was called in Chinese *Kang luo* (康國) which is the *Kang* and *Kang k'u Kuo* of the Han and other histories. This *Kang k'u* territory had been at one time a large region embracing the districts since known as Ferghana, Kohistan, Tashkend, Samarkand and other States². But it had become split up among several members of the Shao wen clan and in the beginning of the seventh century A D the *Kang* country was roughly speaking that region bounded on the north by the Chash (or Tash) kingdom on the east by Kohistan, on the south by Kesh, and on the west by Bokhara.

Up to Yuan chuang's time *Kang* seems to have been the only name by which this country was known to the Chinese generally. Other names had been introduced into

¹ See the *Ching ting yuan shih yu chie* (欽定元史語解) ch 4 but see also c/ 6.

² It was originally however a small state kept in restraint by the Yue chih (Getæ) on the south and by the Hsiung nu on the east, and its inhabitants were nomads. See *Shih chi* ch 123. Kangku was one of Asoka's outlying Provinces which he proposed to hand over to Kunala.

literature but they could not be said to have been generally adopted. One of these new names was Samokan (薩末鞏) the same with that used by Yuan-chuang, and another was *Si-wan* (or *man*)-*lin* (瑟萬斤), neither of which seems to be explained.¹ After Yuan chuang's time we find other names such as *Sin-ssü-lan* (尋思干), and *Sie-mi ssü kan* (薛迷思干), and these are said to stand for the Turkish Semez land meaning "Fat land."² *Siman* is another form of the word for *fat* and the Simankin mentioned above may also mean Fat-Land. But *Sie-mi-ssü-kan* is also interpreted as meaning Sun-Land from *Sams* one of the names for the Sun in Arabic. This last term is also given by some writers as a designation for Tashkend rather than for Samarkand. The interpretation already mentioned as given for the name Samarkand apparently takes the Sanskrit form *Samara kanda* as the correct one. The word *Samara* means a *concourse*, a *flocking together*, and Yuan-chuang's Samokan may be for another Sanskrit word with a similar meaning viz *Samī-gama*.

An old name for the capital of this country is *Su-lue* (蘇薤), that is, *Su hak* or *Sugat*, supposed by some to be for the Sogd of old writers.³ It is at least doubtful, however, whether this was the city which afterwards became known as Samarkand. In other Chinese writers *Suhak* was only one of the royal cities of this country.⁴ With these the capital has other names such as *Aluti* (阿祿迪) and *Pi-t'an* (卑闐) in the Rwan land (樂瑟匿地).⁵

Our author describes the country of Samarkand as being 1600 or 1700 *li* in circuit greater in extent from east to west

¹ Tang shuh ch 221 Tung chien kang mu ch 39 (Tang Tai Tsung 5th y) where the commentator gives *Si-fang* (方) *lin* as the name for *Si-wan lin*.

² See Med Res Vol I p 76 note, p 77, 131 and Vol II p 58, 256. See also Schuyler's Turkistan Vol I p 236.

³ Ch in Shu, ch 97 Sui shu, ch 83 Hirth Nachworte op c S 85. *Su-lue* is also given as a city of the Tashkend country.

⁴ Ma T L ch 338.

⁵ Chien Han Shu ch 96 Tung chien kang mu ch 4.

than from north to south. Its capital was above 20 li in circuit, exceedingly strong and with a large population. The country was a great commercial entrepôt, was very fertile, abounding in trees and flowers and yielding many fine horses. Its inhabitants were skillful craftsmen, smart and energetic. All the Hu (胡) States regarded this country as their centre and made its social institutions their model. The king was a man of spirit and courage and was obeyed by the neighbouring states. He had a splendid army, the most of his soldiers being *Che hie* (Chak or Tak 赫 曷) men. These were men of ardent valour, who looked on death as a going back to their kindred and against whom no foe could stand in combat.

The term *Che la* of this passage is evidently a foreign word and it is interpreted in other books as meaning *Chan shu* (單 士), "soldier" or "warrior".¹ But another supposition is that it stands for Chalak, the name of a town to the north west of the city of Samarkand. The district in which Chalak lay was at this time famed for its tall strong men who were much sought after as soldiers. The characters read *Che la*, however, seem rather to stand for a word like Takka, the name of a country.

The *Life* represents the people of Samokan as being Fire worshippers. Other accounts describe them as being Buddhists in the sixth and seventh centuries although they worshipped also the gods of other religions and their own ancestors. They probably were not all Fire worshippers, but they were evidently haters and persecutors of Buddhism at the time of Yuan chuang's visit. There were two monasteries in the capital and when the young Brethren of Yuan chuang's party went to perform their religious services in one of these the people drove them out and burned the monastery. The king, however, punished the evil doers and heard the pilgrim expound Buddhism and extol Buddha, and even allowed him to hold a religious public service for the ordination of Brethren to serve in the monasteries.

This king was the head of the Shao wu clan and the name of the particular branch to which he belonged was

¹ Tang Shu, l. c. Here the word is written 柘 曷

Wên (溫)¹ The Western Turks had at this time gained the ascendancy in these regions and had become all-powerful. Policy and ambition made this king wed a daughter of the Turkish royal family and the result was that the Samokan (K'ang) country became a vassal to the West Turks. In the year A.D. 631 the king sent an embassy to China praying to be received as a vassal, but the Chinese Emperor for wise and patriotic reasons declined to accede to the request.²

The words here rendered "looked on death as going back to their kindred" are *Shih szü ju kuei* (視死如歸). The expression means that the *Che la* men regarded death as a natural event, as a return to the state from which they had come. It is a literary phrase and is sometimes varied by the addition of *chung* (終), 'the end'.

Before continuing the narrative of his journey towards India our pilgrim proceeds to give short accounts of several countries in the region around Samokan and connected with that country. His information about these districts was probably obtained from living authorities during his stay at the capital of Samokan (or Samarkand). Commencing with the first country in a southerly direction he tells us that

"South east from Samarkand you go to the *Mi mo ha* (弭秣賀) country.¹ This country, which was situated in the mountains, was 400 or 500 *li* in circuit, long from north to south and narrow from east to west. In the products of the land and the ways of the people it resembled Samokan.

The *Life* does not mention this place and *Yün chuang* it will be seen, does not tell us how far it was from Samokan. In other Chinese books its situation is described as being 100 *li* to the south or south east of Samarkand, 500 *li* from *Ura-Tube* on the north west (a mistake for north east) and 200 *li* from *Kesh* on the south-west, or according to one authority 400 *li* from *Kesh* on the south.³

¹ *Wei Shu ch* 102

² *Tung chien kang mu, ch* 39 *T'ang Shu* l c

³ *Tang shu, l c* *Tung chih hao, l c* *Ma T* 1 l c

A note to our text tells us that the Chinese name for Mimoho was *Mi*(木) *luo*, *Mi* s country *Mi* being another scion of the Shao wu clan. Its foreign name also is given elsewhere as *Mi mo* (彌末) and it probably was some thing like Maimak or Memagh. From other sources we learn that the capital the name of which was *Po si ti* (鉢自佗) was about two *li* in circuit and was on the west side of the *Ni mi* (那密) River. This country which was formerly a part of the great Kang kingdom fell into the hands of the West Turks while Yuan chuang was on his pilgrimage.¹

M. Saint Martin identifies Mimoho with Moughian or Maghin. 38 lieues de Samarkand vers l'est en inclinant au sud.² This town the Maghin of our maps is much too far from Samarkand if we accept the statement that Mimo was 100 *li* or about twenty miles from that place. Maghian is about sixty miles south east from the site of old Samarkand which was a little to the north and north-west of the present city.

The narrative in the Records continues—

From this [going] north you arrive at the *Kie* (*Ki* or *Ka*) *pu tan na* (劫布坦那) country.

A note to the text tells us that the Chinese name for this country was *Tsao*(曹) *luo* kingdom of *Tsao*, who was another brother of the Shao wu family. This information, however is unsatisfactory as there were at this time in this region four *Tsao* kingdoms known as East, Middle, West *Tsao* and *Tsao* simply. Of these the first corresponded to the Sutrishan or Ura Tube district which as has been seen was also called Kaputana. The *Tsao* of the note was apparently understood to include the Middle and West *Tsao*.

When the narrative states that "north from this' you go to Kaputana the word *this* is apparently to be taken as meaning Samolan. In the Fang chih the direction is

¹ Tung chien kang mu ch. 40 (Tang Tai Tsung 16th y.)

² Juhen III p. 980

given as North-west and this is perhaps right M Saint-Martin takes the words "from this" to refer to *Mu-mo* or Maghuan, and supposes the Kaputana country to be a city "Kebond" about the situation of which nothing is known¹ But it is better to understand our author as taking Samarkand as the point of departure, and the Kaputana country is then probably represented by the present Mitau and the surrounding district. The Ts'ao country, we are told, was to the north west of Kang kū and Middle Ts'ao to its north Mitau is about thirty miles north-west from the modern Samarkand and in the district which includes Chalak once famous for its good soldiers

Our author continues his account—

Going west from this country for above 300 *li* you come to the *Ku shuang-ni-la* or *Ku san ni la* (屈霜你伽) country

In other treatises we find this name written *Kuei-sang-ni* (貴霜匿) read Kusannik.² The Chinese name, we are told in a note to our text was *Ho* (何) *luo*, the kingdom of Ho, another scion of the Shao wu clan The great Buddhist monk named Sangha, who came to China in A.D. 660, declared himself to be a native of this country, and claimed to be a member of the Ho family³

M Saint Martin supposes the Kusannik of our author to be the "Koschanieh or Kochania" halfway between Samarkand and Bokhara The Life, which has omitted all mention of Mimoha and Kaputana makes Kusannik to be above 300 *li* west from Samokan This, I think, is also the meaning of the passage in our text, and about 60 miles west of Samokan, or north west from Samarkand, would bring us to the neighbourhood of the modern Panjshamba district

Our text proceeds—

From this country, that is apparently, Kusannik it is above 200 *li* to the Hoh han (喝捍) country

¹ Julien III p. 281

² Ma T 1 ch. 338 Tang shu ch. 221

³ Sung kao seng chuan, ch. 18

The note to the text tells us that the Chinese name for this country was *Tung An* (吐 安) /uo or 'Fast-An kingdom'. *An*, as we have seen was the name of one of the Shao wu brothers and this chief evidently had a large principality. *Hoh han* was only a part and was called the "Small country". It was south of the *La mu* river and its capital had the same name also written *Hoh han* (呼 罕) and probably pronounced like *Khakan* or *Khagan*¹. M. Saint Martin identifies this district with that of the modern Kermineh or Kerminah and he is probably nearly correct.

West from *Hoh han* 100 *li* was the *Pu hoh* (蒲 呼) country

This country which a note to our text tells us was called by the Chinese the "Middle An kingdom" is placed by the *Tang Shu* 100 *li* to the south west of *Hoh han*. It is the country which is called *An mi* (安 弥) in some books and it is also called the *An* and the Great An kingdom. For the *Pu hoh* of our text we find *Pu huoh* (蒲 呼) and these two probably represent an original like *Bokh* or *Bokhar*². M. Saint-Martin and Dr. Bretschneider identify the country with the modern Bokhara³ and they are doubtless right but the *Bokh* of our pilgrim was apparently to the north of the present city and district of Bokhara.

Our author continues—

From this country (i.e. Bokh) west above 400 *li* is the *Fah ti* (伐 地) country

This is the reading of the A, B, and D texts but instead of *Fu ti* the C text has *Su* (戍) *ti* in one place and *Wu* (or *Mu* 戊) *ti* in another. Then the *Li*fe, which also reads *Fah ti* reduces the distance from Bokh from 400 to 100 *li*. The usual note to the text tells us that the Chinese name for the country was "Hsi an kuo" or "West An kingdom". In the *Tang Shu* we find the above *Wu*

¹ Ma T 1 1 c *Tang Shu* 1 c

² Ma T 1 1 c *Tang Shu* 1 c

³ Julien III p. 982 *Med. Res.* Vol. II p. 60

(or *Mu*) *ti* given as the name of one of the nine Shao wu chiefs, and it also mentions a *Su ti* district in this region¹ Taking *Fah ti* as the reading we may regard this transcription as possibly representing a name like *Paptei*. St Martin finds the modern representative of *Fah ti* in Bētil, 'lieu situe sur la droite de l'Oxus à une trentaine de lieues au sud ouest de Boukhara' But we should probably regard the *Fa ti* of our text as having had a situation in the neighbourhood of the present Darganata district on the west side of the Oxus. Thus *Fa ti* (or *Su ti*) is perhaps the principality designated *Niao na ga* or *Wu na ga* (烏 or 烏那迦) which was to the west of the Oxus about 400 li South west from the *An* country²

The narrative proceeds—

From this that is *Fah ti* it is over 500 li south west to the *Huo li si mi la* (貨利習彌伽) country. This lay along the banks of the Oxus being 20 or 30 li east to west and above 100 li north to south

M Saint Martin substitutes *north west* for the south west of this passage, and he is doubtless right.³ All the texts however, have *south west* and the Lfe has *west* but the Tang Shu places this country 600 li to the north west of *Su ti* (*Fa ti*). In the B C and D texts there is a Chinese note to the text which contains only the words for 'in Chinese' but A supplies the name which had dropped out. This is *Huo sin* (火尋) *Iuo* this kingdom of *Huo sin* (or *sun*) one of the princes of the Shao wu family. The country here called *Huo li si mi la* or Khorismika(?) has been identified with the modern Khannate of Khiva corresponding to the Kharesm or Khorazm of ancient authors.⁴ In the Tang Shu *Huo li si mi* and *Kuo li* (火利) are given as synonyms for *Huo sin* and the country is described as being south of the Oxus and as having bullock waggons

¹ Tang Shu I c

² Ma T I I c Tang ch h I ao I c In the Sui Shu I c Wu na ka (or ga) is one of the Shao wu princes

³ Julien III p 983

⁴ Med Res II p 91

which were used by travelling merchants.¹ In some of the lists of the Shao-wu princes the name Huo-sin does not occur.

KASANNA

The pilgrim now resumes the narrative of his journey. He relates that

from the Samokan country he went south west above 300 *li* to the *Ka shuang na* or Kasanna (曷 霜 那) country. This was 1400 or 1500 *li* in circuit and it resembled Samarkand in its natural products and the ways and customs of the people.

All texts and the Fang-chih seem to agree in the reading 'from Samokan,' but the Life makes the pilgrim proceed from Kharesm. This, however, is undoubtedly wrong and quite impossible. In the Chinese note to our text we are told that the Chinese name for this country was *Shih*(史)-*I-uo*, the kingdom of Shih, another of the nine Shao-wu chiefs. From other sources we learn that the country was called also *K'a-sha* (曷 沙) and *K'i-shih* (渴 石)² which are perhaps only different forms of a name like Kesh. This is perpetuated in the modern name of the district, Kesh, derived directly perhaps from the name of the city *Ki-shih* (乞 史) which was built in the 7th century. The capital, corresponding to the present Shahr-i-sebs or Shehr, lay about ten *li* south of the *Tu-mo* (獨 莫) River.³ This is probably the present Kashka-daria "on which the city is founded." Kesh was formerly a dependency of Kangku which lay 240 *li* to the north of it.

THE IRON PASS

Our pilgrim's narrative proceeds—

From Kesh he proceeded south west above 200 *li* and entered a range of mountains. Here his path was a narrow risky track, there were no inhabitants and little grass or water. Travelling

¹ Tang Shu, I c

² Tang Shu I c

³ Med Res Vol II p 273

among the hills in a south east direction for above 300 *li* he entered the Iron Pass (lit Iron Gate). Along this Iron Pass on either side is a very high precipitous mountain. Although there is a narrow path in it this is still more inaccessible. The rocks which rise up on both sides are of an iron colour, when the gates were set up they were also strengthened with iron and numerous small iron bells were suspended on them. The name it bears was given to the Pass on account of its impregnable nature.

Yuan chuang apparently went from Kesh to the neighbourhood of the place now called Ghuzar Fort, and then turning south east followed the Ghuzar river until he reached the Iron Pass. But the Life does not make any mention of the change of direction from south west to south east. The words for "Although there is a narrow path" are in all my texts *Sui yu hsia chung* (雖有狹徑), but Juhen's text seems to have had instead of *sui* the word *li* (離). So his translation of the clause which seems to give better sense is—"Elles (i.e. the "deux montagnes paralleles") ne sont separees que par un sentier qui est fort etroit, et, en outre, herisse de precipices." But one does not see how there could be 'precipices,' and *sui* is the correct reading.

In Dr Bretschneider's learned treatise, to which reference is so often made in these pages, the reader will find much information about the Iron Pass (or Gate)¹. It is the Buzgola Khan or Goat-house of the Hindus and it is known by other names. According to some its width varies from 40 to 60 feet and it is about two miles in length a stream flows through it and it contains a village. The Life represents the actual gate as being made of the raw iron of the mountains, plated with iron and furnished with iron bells, and hence according to it, came the name of the pass or rather Gate. But the pilgrim used *mên* in the sense of Pass or Passage and he understood this

¹ Op c I p 82 and II p 274. See also Reclus Geog T VI p 502. Remusat Nouv Mel As T I p 238, Sui Shu ch 83, Tang Shu l c, Hirth's Nachworte op c p 84ff.

to have the epithet Iron because it was strong and impregnable. Later travellers relate that the Pass was guarded by a barrier (or barriers) of the iron stone of the place clamped or faced with iron. But no one after Yuan-chuang's time seems to have seen an actual gate hung with bells, and we read only of a tradition that there had once been a great gate. This Pass once checked the Tu-kue or Turks in their western advances, and kept them and Tokharans apart, and it became famous in the time of the Mongol conquests. In Chinese works of the T'ang and later periods it is often called the *T'ie mên kuan* or "Pass of the Iron Gate." It is thus described by a recent writer—"The famous ravine of the Iron Gate winds through a high mountain chain, about twelve versts to the west of Derbent. It is a narrow cleft, 5 to 36 paces wide and about two versts long. It is known now as Buzghala Khāna (i.e. the house of Goats). Its eastern termination is 3540 feet above the sea, its western termination 3740 feet. A torrent, Buzghala Khāna bulak flows, through it"¹

TU-HUO-LO (TOKHARA)

Our narrative proceeds to describe that

going out of the Iron Pass you reach the *Tu huo lo* country. This was above 1000 *li* north to south and 3000 *li* east to west, it reached on the east to the Ts'ung Ling, on the west to Persia on the south to the Great Snow Mountains (the Hindu Kush) and on the north to the Iron Pass, the river Oxus flowed through the middle of it from east to west, for several centuries the succession to the sovereignty had been interrupted and the country was divided into 27 States with separate chiefs and all subject to the Turks, "When the climate becomes warm there is much sickness and at the end of winter and beginning of spring there is constant rain (in C. "a succession of hoarfrost and rain"), hence in all the countries south of this to *Lan p'o* much heat sickness is a natural characteristic, hence the Buddhist Brethren go into Retreat of the Rainy season on the 16th day of the 12th month and go out on the 1st day of the 3rd month, this is because there is much rain then, thus making their

¹ Tarikh-i-Rashid by Firis and Ross p. 20

religious precepts conform to the seasons" The people were pusillanimous and ill favoured, but they were in a manner reliable and were not given to deceitful ways They had a peculiar spoken language and an alphabet of 25 letters, their writing was horizontal from left to right, and their records had gradually increased until they exceeded those of *Su li* in number They had for clothing more calico (*tich*) than serge, their currency consisted of gold, silver, and other coins which were different from those of other countries

The *Tu-huo lo* (吐火羅) of this passage is undoubtedly the Tokhara of old western geographers In the Chinese note to the text we are told that an old and incorrect name was *T'u huo-lo* (吐火羅), which is the transcription used in the *Sui-Shu* There are also other transcriptions of the name such as the *T'u-hu-lo* (吐呼羅) of early writers, but the differences are not important In certain Chinese translations of Buddhist treatises the name is given *T'u-la li* (兜里 (or 吐里) 勒) or *Tukhar*¹ The Sanskrit name is *Tukhāra* another form of which is *Tushāra*. This word has the meanings of *frost*, *snow*, and *mist* or *vapour*.

The extent and boundaries of the country named Tokhara found in other works differ considerably from those given by our pilgrim² It was supposed to correspond partly to the great *Ta-Hsia* of early Chinese records,³ and portions of the present Bokhara and Badakshan seem to have been once included under this name. *Samt Martin* and *Yule*⁴ are positive in asserting that *Yuan-chuang's* Tokhara was the country of the *Yetha*, but this is against Chinese authority In the *Wei-Shu* and *Sui Shu*, for example, we have distinct accounts of Tokhara and of the *Yetha*, and the people of the former are referred to the *Small Yue-ti*, while the *Yetha* are said to have been of the original *Yue-ti* stock The *Yetha*

¹ *Ta chih tu lun*, ch 25 (No 1169), *Vibhāṣa lun*, ch 9 (No 1279 tr A.D 833)

² *Ma T i* ch 339

³ *T'ang Shu*, ch 221, *T'ung chien kang mu*, ch 40 (*T'ang T'ai Tsung* 16th year)

⁴ *Julien III* p 285, *J R A S Vol VI* p 94

and Tokharians lived together, but the former were nomads, while the latter were dwellers in towns

The part of the passage within inverted commas reads in Juhen's version thus—"La temperature etant constamment tiede, les epidemies y sont tres frequentes. A la fin de l'hiver et au commencement du printemps, il tombe des pluies continuelles. C'est pourquoi au sud de ce pays, et au nord de *Lan po*, il règne beaucoup d'épidemies. De là vient que tous les religieux entrent dans les demeures fixes le seizieme jour du douzieme mois, et en sortent le quinzieme jour du troisieme. Cet usage est fonde sur l'abondance des pluies. Les instructions qu'on leur donne sont subordonnees aux saisons"¹ Now the text does not seem to assert that the temperature of this large region was *constamment tiede*, and that consequently epidemics were frequent. Such a statement, moreover, would be at variance with other passages in this *chuan* such as the descriptions of Kie chih and Bamian. It is true, however, that Ma Tuan lin, on the authority of others represents the Tokhara country as having a hot climate, but that was evidently only in the summer, for the inhabitants were able to store ice for use during the hot weather. What our author apparently wanted his readers to understand was that the climate became warm or mild in early spring when the rainy season began. This change in the temperature produced much illness which was called "Heat (or Spring) sickness." In all my texts the reading here is *uên chü* (溫疾), but Juhen's text may have had *wên*(瘟) *chü*, and this is rightly translated in his note "maladies epidémiques." Because the early spring was the rainy season of these countries the Buddhist Brethren in them made that their time of Retreat from the Rain

¹ The text of the passage is—氣序既溫疾疫 (in B 吐) 亦衆冬末春初霖 (in C 霜) 雨相繼故此境已南濫波已北其國風土並多溫疾而諸僧徒以十二月十六日入安居三月十五日解安居斯乃據其多雨亦是設教隨時也

In India the rainy season was in the summer, and this was the time of year in which Retreat was to be observed according to the Vinaya. By changing the time of Retreat these Brethren departed from the letter but conformed to the spirit of their regulations.

For a long time the name Tokhara seems to have practically gone out of use, and the country which once bore the name is now to some degree represented by Badakshan.¹ Even in our pilgrim's time it was properly not the name of a country but of a great tribe or people occupying a certain large territory.

Proceeding with his description of the region the pilgrim

the same in width its capital being 20 *li* in circuit It reached on the east to the *Ku-mi-te* country in the Tsung Ling

The *Ku-mi-te* country was above 2000 *li* long and 200 *li* wide it was in the Tsung Ling mountains its capital was above 20 *li* in circuit on the south east it was near the Oxus and on the south it adjoined the *Sih-kai-ni* country

To the south across the Oxus were the countries called *Ta mo si-tie-ti* *Po-to-chuang-na* *Yin-po-lan* *Ku-lang-na* *Hi-mo-ta-la* *Po-li-lo* *Ki-li-si-nio* *Ko-lo-lu* *Ali-ni* *Mei-gan* South east from the *Huo* (Kunduz) country were the *Kuo-si-to* and *An-ta-lo-fa* countries the circumstances about these being related in the account of the return journey South west from *Huo* was the *Fo-ha-lang* country which was above 50 *li* long and 200 *li* broad its capital being above ten *li* in circuit South of it was the *Ki-li-si-min-kan* country which was above 1000 *li* in circuit its capital being 14 or 10 *li* in circuit To the north west of it was the *Hu-lin* country which was 800 *li* in circuit with its capital five or six in circuit It had above ten monasteries with more than 500 Buddhist Brethren

In the *Life* we are merely told that the pilgrim travelled some hundreds of *li* from Tokhara crossed the Oxus and came to the *Huo* country (Kunduz) This was the residence of *Ta-tu* (吐度) the *Shê* (設) or General in command, the eldest son of the *She-hu Khan* and a brother in law of the king of Kao-chang² This king had given

¹ See *Chuan* XII *ch* XVIII

² The whole of this paragraph is taken from the *Life ch* II Julien I p 62f In this passage the word *Ta-tu* is apparently treated as a personal name but it was rather a generic name qualifying a title It is found with a slight variation of transcription prefixed as here to *She* and also to *Khan* We must regard it as a foreign word, but we may hesitate to accept its identification with Tardush or Tardu This latter term is generally used to designate a Turkish tribe or horde but it also occurs in an inscription as the name of a Kirghiz envoy The *Ta-tu* of our passage cannot be regarded as having a tribal significance and here as in other places it seems to qualify the title to which it is prefixed See Tung chien kang mu ch 40 (Tang Tai Tsung 10th y) Thomsen's Inscriptions de l'Orkhon p^o 63 114 146, Hirth Nachworte S 130f

The *She* of this passage is of frequent occurrence in Chinese history treating of the Turks It is explained as meaning *soldier* or *General* but the title is always applied to a very high military officer usually a near relative of the *Khan* This *She* is regarded

a letter of introduction, but when Yuan-chuang arrived the Kao ch'ang princess was dead and the General was ill, and hearing of the pilgrim's arrival with a letter he with his male and female retinue made uncontrollable lamentation. He invited the pilgrim to rest for a time, promising that if he recovered he would accompany the pilgrim to India. The General recovered by the help of the exorcisms of an Indian Buddhist monk, but he was poisoned by a young queen at the instigation of a stepson¹. Then this stepson *T'el'in*, the son by the Kao-ch'ang princess being a child, usurped the position of General and married his step mother (the young wife whom he had induced to murder her husband and his father). On account of the funeral services for the General the pilgrim was detained here more than a month. In this time he made the acquaintance of a great Buddhist monk named Dharmasangha who had a very high reputation as a profound scholar in Buddhism. But Yuan-chuang found him to be only superficially acquainted with the Hinayānist books, and he knew nothing of Mahāyānism. When the pilgrim was ready to continue his journey he asked the new General for escort and post accommodation² on the way southwards towards India. The General strongly recom-

as a transcription of an old Turkish word *Shad*. Thomsen, *Inscriptions*, p. 146, *Hirth Nachworte* S. 45.

¹ According to the text the Shō or Military governor after his marriage with the Kao-ch'ang princess had taken a new Khatun or queen. This young concubine urged on by the son of a senior queen poisoned her lord, and thereupon the young prince took his father's place to the concubine and people. He is here called *T'el'in* (𐰽𐰺𐰍 𐰽𐰺𐰍) as if this were his personal name. But *T'el'in* is said to be for the Turkish word *Tagin* (or *Tegin*) meaning *Prince*, and it is of frequent occurrence as a high title. See Schlegel's *St le funeraire* p. 6, Thomsen's *Inscriptions* p. 73.

² For "post accommodation" here the original is *Wu lo* (烏落). This is a word common to the Mongols and Turks and is known as *ula* or *ulak*. It denotes the contributions of service imposed on subjects by government, and includes the supply of men and horses and accommodation for officials when travelling on duty.

mended him to visit the *Fo-ho-lo* country, which belonged to his horde, and had interesting sacred sites. This advice was urged also by certain Brethren from that country who had come to *Huo* in connection with the change of administration, and Yuan-chuang acted on the advice, and joined these Brethren on their return.

Most of the countries here described as lying between the Iron Pass and Bamian are mentioned again in the account of the return journey, and it is not necessary to refer to them further at present.

FO-HO (BALKH)

The narrative in the Records proceeds to relate that West (i. e. from *Hulin*) you reach *Fo ho*. This country was above 800 *li* from east to west and 400 *li* north to south, reaching on the north to the Oxus. The capital, which all called "Little Rajagriha city," was above twenty *li* in circuit, but though it was strong it was thinly peopled. In natural products the district was rich and the land and water flowers were too many to enumerate. There were above 100 Buddhist monasteries with more than 3000 Brethren all adherents of the "Small Vehicle" system.

Outside the capital on the south west side was the *Na-fo* (Nava) Sanghārāma or New Monastery built by a former king of the country. This was the only Buddhist establishment north of the Hindu-Kush in which there was a constant succession of Masters who were commentators on the canon. The image of the Buddha in this monastery was artistically made of (according to one reading, studded with) noted precious substances, and its halls were adorned with costly rarities, hence it was plundered for gain by the chiefs of the various states. In the monastery was an image of Vairocana deva which had bona fide miracles and in mysterious ways protected the establishment. The pilgrim tells how not long before the time of his visit this deva had frustrated an armed attempt of the Turkish *She-hu* or governor name *Ssü*, the son of a governor, to invade and plunder the monastery.

In the South Buddha Hall of this establishment were Buddha's washing-basin about one *fou* in capacity so bright and dazzling was the blending of colours in this basin that one could not well tell whether it was of stone or metal. There was also a tooth of the Buddha an inch long and $\frac{3}{10}$ th of an inch broad,

and there was his broom made of *lasa* grass above two feet long and about seven inches round, the handle being set with pearls. On the six festival days these relics were exhibited to the assembled lay and clerical worshippers. On such occasions the relics moved by the "thorough sincerity" of a worshipper may emit a brilliant light.

To the north of the New Monastery was a *tope* above 200 feet high which was plastered with diamond-cement. This *tope* was also ornamented with various precious substances, and it contained relics which sometimes shone with supernatural light.

South west from the New Monastery was a *ching lu* (精廬) or Buddhist temple. This had been built long ago, and had been the resort of Brethren of high spiritual attainments from all quarters. It had been found impossible to keep a record of those who here realized the Four Fruits (that is, became arhats). So *topes* were erected for those arhats who when about to die made a public exhibition of their miraculous powers, the bases of these *topes* were very close together and were some hundreds odd in number. But no memorial erection was made in the case of those Brethren, about 1000 in number, who although arhats had died without exhibiting miracles. In this establishment were above 100 Brethren, who were "day and night assiduous at their duties," and one could not tell which was common monk and which was arhat.

The *Fo ho* (縛喝) of this passage has been identified with the city and district of Balkh and the identification is probably quite correct. But we cannot properly regard the Chinese word as a transcription of the word Balkh, or of its variant Pahl, or of Vāhlika the name in the *Bṛhat-saṃhitā* and supposed to be the original form¹. In the *Life* the name is given as *Fo ho-lo* and I-chung writes it *Fo ko lo*². These transcriptions seem to require an original like Bokhar or Bokharī, the name of the country which included Balkh. The *Fo ho* or Balkh of our pilgrim was evidently not very far west or north-west from *Huo* (Kunduz) and it was under the same Turkish governor with that State. The pilgrim, the *Life* tells us, beheld Balkh as a "Better Land", with its cities and their sur-

¹ Julien III p 289 Alberuni Vol I p 300 Fleet Ind Ant. Vol. XXII p 192

² Hsi yü ch'iu, ch 1 and Chavannes Memoires p^s 23, 48

roundings in bold relief, and its vales and country districts rich and fertile. The description which he gives of the capital and the surrounding district agrees with the accounts of later travellers¹

The *Nava sangharama* or New Monastery of this passage is the *Nava vihara* and *Hsin ssu* (with the same meaning) of I-ching who also represents the establishment as being occupied by Brethren of the Hinayan system². In the late the Buddha's washing basin in this monastery is of a capacity of two *tou*, and another account makes it to have held only a *sheng*. The *tou* of the Tang period was a little more than nine quarts and the *sheng* was only about a pint. The basin and the tooth and the broom were exhibited to the worshippers on the sacred days. On these occasions the "thorough sincerity," the full hearted earnestness of devotees sometimes had power to move the relics to shed a brilliant light. For "thorough sincerity" the term in the text is *Chih ch'eng* (至誠) a classical expression derived from the "Chung yung"³. The Confucianist believed that this "thorough sincerity" enabled its possessor to have a subtle influence over external nature. But to the pilgrim a Confucianist converted to Buddhism, its power in a believing worshipper extended to the mysterious powers associated with the sacred objects of his adopted religion. This New Monastery, Yuan chuang tells us was under the protection of Vairavana deva who kept guard over the establishment. It was to this deva that India on the death of the Buddha entrusted the defence of Buddhism in the northern regions, and it was in this capacity that he had charge of the monastery. Here at the time of Yuan chuang's visit was a very genial learned Brother from the *Che la* country from whom our pilgrim received much kindness and assistance in his

¹ Cf. Q. Curtius B. VII. ch. 18. Burnes Travels into Bokhara ch. VIII.

² Hsi yü chiu l. c.

³ Ch. 22.

studies With this Brother, named Prajnakāra, Yuan-chuang read certain Abhidharma treatises and also the Vibhāṣa śāstra There were also in the monastery at the time two learned and esteemed Doctors in Buddhism who treated the Chinese pilgrim with great courtesy

The term which the Records and the Life use for the Buddhist establishment to the south west of the New Monastery is, it will be observed, *Ching lu* This phrase means "the cottage of the essential" and it is perhaps a synonym of *Ching she*, an old and common term with a similar meaning Our pilgrim may have taken it over from a previous writer who used it in the sense of Vihara, as Julien translates it here It is to be observed that the Life does not know anything of the invidious distinction in the treatment given to the relics of the arhats of this temple who died after miraculous exhibitions, and that of the relics of those arhats who passed away without such exhibitions The pilgrim, as we have seen, describes the 100 Brethren in the establishment at his time as 'day and night assiduous at their duties The words within inverted commas are a quotation with the alteration of one character from a wellknown passage in the Shih chung and they are a stock literary phrase¹ He adds that one cannot distinguish among them the ordinary Brother from the arhat Instead of this last clause Julien has—"Il est difficile de scruter le cœur des hommes vulgaires et des saints," but this platitude cannot be forced out of the text This simply tells us that all the Brethren were so zealous in the observances of their religion that one could not tell which was common monk and which was arhat

At a distance of above 50 li north west from the capital was T'ientsin city and above 40 li to the north of that was P'ohs city In each of these towns was a tope above thirty feet high Now the story of these topes was this As soon as Ju lai long ago attained Buddhahood he went to the Bodhi Tree and thence to the Deer Park (near Benares) At this time two householders

¹ The sentence in the original runs—今僧徒百餘人夙夜匪懈凡聖莊訓

meeting him in his majestic glory gave him of their travelling provisions parched grain and honey. Bhagavat expounded to them what brings happiness to men and devas, and these two householders were the first to hear the Five Commandments and Ten Virtues. When they had received the religious teaching they requested something to worship, and Julai gave them of his hair and nail-pairings. The two men being about to return to their native country begged to have rule and pattern for their service of worship. Julai thereupon making a square pile of his saṅghati, or lower robe, laid it on the ground, and did the same with his uttarasaṅga or outer robe and his Saṃkacchukham, the robe which goes under the arm-pits, in succession. On the top of these he placed his bowl inverted, and then set up his mendicant's staff, thus making a tope. The two men, accepting the Julai's instructions, returned each to his city, and according to the pattern thus taught by the Buddha they proceeded to erect these two topes the very first in the dispensation of Sakyamuni Buddha. Above 70 li west of the capital was a tope which had been built in the time of Kasyapa Buddha.

The *Ti-uei* (提謂) and *P'oli* (波利) of this very curious passage are the names of men not of cities. They stand for Trapusha (or Tapassu) and Bhallika (or Bhalluka) and are the transcriptions used by some of the early translators.¹ The former is sometimes translated as *Huang-hua* (黃瓜) "a gourd" or "melon" and in Tibetan as Ga-gong with similar meaning: Bhallika is translated *Tsun-lo* (村落), "a village," but the Tibetan rendering means "good" or "fortunate" (Bhalluka).² These two men were travelling merchants or caravan-chiefs from a far land.³ The story of their giving the Buddha his first food after he attained Buddhahood is told in many books with

¹ They are used in the Hsü-hsing-pên ch'i-chung (No. 684. tr. A.D. 197), in the Fo-shuo-tai-tzū-sui-ying-pên-ch'i-chung, ch. 1 (No. 665, tr. cir. A.D. 250).

The two merchants' names are also given as Bhadravasa and Bhadrak (Yin-huo ching, ch. 3. No. 666 tr. cir. A.D. 450), and as Kua or "Melon" (Trapusha) and Upali in the Ssu-fên Vinaya, ch. 31 where the men are brothers.

² Sar. Vin. P'o sêng-shih, ch. 5 (No. 1123). Rockhill Life p. 34.

³ The village of the great alms giving is also located on the way between Bodhi-gaya and Benares and its name given as Tapusa-bhalik (多謂婆 for 婆致利).

some variations. In a late Sinhalese text these pious merchants erected a tope over the precious hair- and nail-cuttings in Ceylon,¹ in a Burmese story the monument was erected in Burmah,² and in the account which Yuan chuang gives in *Chuan* VIII a monument was erected at the place where the incident occurred.³ Some versions represent the two traders as being men from the north some represent them as brothers, and in some versions there is only one man. The ridiculous story told here of the Buddha's extemporized model of a tope does not seem to be found in any other account of the incident. It gives us, however, the plain outline of the original or early Buddhist tope or pagoda,—a square base surmounted by a cylinder on which was a dome topped by a spire. Julien evidently misunderstood the passage and he had a faulty text. He makes the pilgrim state that Julai took off his sanghātī “forme de pieces de coton carrees”. He had the Ming text reading *tieh* meaning “cotton” but the C and D texts have the *tieh* which means to *double fold pile*. The topes which these two merchants erected in their respective native places are not represented as the first structures of the kind, but only as the first in the Buddhism of Sakyamuni. The very next sentence, as we have seen tells of a Kāśyapa Buddha tope in the same district.

The narrative continues

South west from the capital [of Balkh] coming into a corner of the Snowy mountains you arrive at the *Yue mei* (or *mo*)-*te* country. This was 50 or 60 *li* long by 100 *li* wide and its capital was above ten *li* in circuit.

Julien who transliterates the Chinese characters for the name of this country by *Jui mo tho*, suggests Jumadhā as the foreign word transcribed. But the first character (銳)

¹ Hardy M. B. p. 186

² Bigandet Legend vol. 1 p. 108

³ The version in the Lalitavistara Ch. XXIV, and some other versions of the story do not make mention of the hair and nails relics and the topes.

was read *yue* and the name was probably something like Yumadba. Our author in this passage uses the mode of description which is supposed to indicate that he is giving a second hand report not the result of a personal visit. But we know from the Life that the pilgrim did go to this country at the pressing invitation of its king who shewed him great kindness.

To the south west [of *Yue-mei-te*] was the *Hu shih lan* country. This was above 500 *li* long and above 1000 *li* broad and its capital was above 70 *li* in circuit. It had many hills and vales and yielded good horses.

This country according to the Tang Shu, extended on the south east to Bamian. M. Saint Martin thinks that the *Hu shih lan* of this passage may be the district called by the Persians *Juslan* which was "entre Balkh et le district de Merou er Roud". The pilgrim made a short visit to this country also we learn from the Life.¹

North west [from *Hu-shih lan*] was *Ta la lan*. This country was above 500 *li* long by 50 or 60 *li* wide and its capital was more than ten *li* in circuit. On the west it adjoined *Po la ssu* (Persia).

M. Saint-Martin thinks that this name *Ta la lan* "nous conduit indubitablement à la *Talelan* du Ghardjistan ville située à trois petites journées au dessus de Merou er Roud dans la direction de Herat." The name which he has here transcribed may have been Talakan or Tarkan, but it is not likely that the characters were used to represent a word like Talikan or Talekan.

The pilgrim now resumes his journey towards India.

From Balkh he went south more than 100 *li* to *Kie'Ka)-chih*. This country was above 500 *li* long and 300 *li* wide and its capital was five or six *li* in circuit. It was a very stony hilly country with few fruits and flowers but much pulse and wheat. The climate was very cold. The people's ways were hard and brutish. There were more than ten monasteries with 300 Brethren all attached to the Sarvastivadin school of the "Small Vehicle" system.

¹ Juhen III. p. 290 Cf. Yule in J. R. A. S. Vol. vi. p. 107.

² Juhen III. p. 269 Cf. Yule loc. cit. Med. Res. Vol. II. p. 93.

The word here transcribed *Ka-chih* has been restored as Gachi and Gaz, and Yule took the country to be "the Darh or Valley of Gaz" ¹

BAMIAN

Our narrative proceeds to relate that the pilgrim

going south east from *Ka chih* country entered the Great Snowy Mountains. These mountains are lofty and their defiles deep, with peaks and precipices fraught with peril. Wind and snow alternate incessantly, and at midsummer it is still cold. Piled up snow fills the valleys and the mountain tracks are hard to follow. There are gods of the mountains and impish sprites which in their anger send forth monstrous apparitions, and the mountains are infested by troops of robbers who make murder their occupation.

A journey of above 600 *li* brought the pilgrim out of the limits of the Tokhara country and into the *Fan yen-na* country. This was above 2000 *li* from east to west and 300 *li* from north to south. It was in the midst of the Snowy Mountains, and its inhabitants taking advantage of the mountains and defiles had their towns in strong places. The capital, which was built at a steep bank and across a defile had a high cliff on its north side and was six or seven *li* in length. The country was very cold, it yielded early wheat, had little fruit or flower, but had good pasture for sheep and horses. The people had harsh rude ways, they mostly wore furs and serges, which were of local origin. Their written language, their popular institutions and their currency were like those of Tokhara, and they resembled the people of that country in appearance but differed from them in their spoken language. In honesty of disposition they were far above the neighbouring countries, and they made offerings and paid reverence with perfect sincerity to [all objects of worship] from the Three Precious ones of Buddhism down to all the gods. Traders coming and going on business whether the gods shew favourable omens or exhibit sinister manifestations, pay worship (lit. seek religious merit).

The *Fan-yen-na* (梵衍那) of this is, as has been shewn by others, Bamian, and Yuan-chung was apparently the first to use this transcription. Other transcriptions found in Chinese literature are *Fan-yen* (帆延), and *Wang* (王)

¹ Yule l. c.

Bang-yen (疑衍), each representing a sound like Bam-yan. Our pilgrim represents the inhabitants as using the natural strongholds of the hills and defiles for their places of abode. The district, we learn from the Tang-Shu, had several large towns, but the people lived chiefly in mountain caves.¹ Writing from reports of recent travellers Colonel Yule tells us "The prominences of the cliffs which line the valley of Bāmīān are crowned by the remains of numerous massive towers, whilst their precipitous faces are for six or seven miles pierced by an infinity of anciently excavated caves, some of which are still occupied as dwellings. The actual site of the old city is marked by mounds and remains of walls, and on an isolated rock in the middle of the valley are the considerable ruins of what appear to have been the acropolis, now known as Ghulghūla"² This Ghulghula probably represents part of our pilgrim's capital, the name of which in the 7th century was *Lo-lan* (羅蘭). Ibn Haukal tells us that "Bamian is a town about half as large as Balkh, situated on a hill. Before this hill runs a river, the stream of which flows into Guyestan. Bamian has not any gardens nor orchards, and it is the only town in this district situated on a hill."³ The Life tells us that when Yuan-chuang arrived at the capital the king came out to meet him and then entertained him in the palace and that in this city the pilgrim met with two learned Brethren of the Mahā-saṅghika school who were very kind to him. The king was probably regarded by Yuan-chuang as a descendant of the Sākya exile from Kapilavastu who went to Bamian and became its king.

In Bamian there were some tens of Buddhist monasteries with several thousands of Brethren who were adherents of that Hīnayāna school which "declares that [Buddha] transcends the ordinary", that is, the Lokottaravādin School.

¹ Tang-shu, ch. 221.

² See "The Rock cut Caves and Statues of Bamian" in J. R. A. S. Vol. xviii Art. XIV.

³ Or. Geog. tr.*Ouseley p. 225

For the words here placed within inverted commas the original is *Shuo ch'u shih* (說出世) This expression as has been shewn by others is used to translate the Sanskrit Lokottaravadin Julien interprets this and its Chinese equivalent as meaning those dont les discours s'élèvent au dessus du monde ¹ Burnouf renders the term by ceux qui se pretendent supérieures au monde ² Eitel translates it Those who pretend to have done with the world ³ But all these interpretations judged by the accounts of the school seem to be wrong and misleading Wassiljew explains the term better as meaning "those who argue about emergence from the world that is argue that in the Buddhas there is nothing which belongs to the world ⁴ So also Rockhill using Tibetan texts explains the term thus—"Those who say that the blessed Buddhas have passed beyond all worlds (i.e. existences) that the Tathagata was not subject to worldly laws are called ["Those who say that the Tathagata] has passed beyond all world or *Lokottaravādins*." The school which bore this name is described as an offshoot from the Mahasanghika or Church of the Great Congregation of Brethren which arose in the Madhyadeśa or Mid India of Chinese writers The name was given to the sect from the prominence which its founders gave to the doctrines that the Buddhas were not begotten and conceived as human beings that there was nothing *worldly* in them but that they were altogether *above this world* world transcending In Chinese Lokottaravadin became *Shuo ch'u shih* (or *Ch'u shih shuo*) as in Yuan chuangs translation or *Ch'u shih chien yen yu* or *Ch'u shih chien shuo* ⁵ The former means

¹ Melanges p 330 333

² Bur Int p 409

³ Handbook Ch Buddhism s v Lokottara vādinah

⁴ Was Bud S 200

⁵ Rockhill Life p 183 I have taken some liberty with Mr Rockhill's text as there is apparently something omitted.

* ⁶ See the Shih pa pu lun (No 1984) and I pu tung lun lun (No 1986)

'stating that [Buddha] transcends the world" and the latter means 'talk [of Buddha] transcending what is in the world" In the *Mahāvastu* we have apparently a sort of text book of this sect though the treatise represent itself to be portion of the *Vinaya*¹ It teaches with iteration the doctrine of the unworldliness or super world liness of the Tathagatas or Great Rishi and consists mainly of legends of the past and present lives of the Buddha As *Vasumitra* shew the Lokottaravadins like the other sects which branched off from the *Mahasaugika* body differed from the latter only in the accidentals not in the essentials of doctrine and precept The peculiar doctrine about the Buddhas must be excepted In the lists of the Buddhist schools given in the *Dīpavamsa* the Lokottaravadin school is not mentioned

The description in the text proceeds

On the declivity of a hill to the north-east of the capital was a standing image of Buddha made of stone 140 or 150 feet high, of a brilliant golden colour and resplendent with ornamentation of precious substances To the east of it was a Buddhist monastery built by a former king of the country East of this was a standing image of *Sakyamuni* Buddha above 100 feet high made of *tu shi* the pieces of which had been cast separately and then welded together into one figure

The large Buddha image of this passage is evidently the "big idol, male" which Captain Talbot measured with his theodolite and found to be 173 feet high. A picture of this image is given at p 341 in Vol xviii of the R. A. S. Journal in the Article already quoted from Captain Talbot states that the image was "hewn out of the conglomerate rock but the finishing drapery, &c., was all added by putting on stucco" Our pilgrim's statement that the image was of a "brilliant golden colour" agrees with its name "Surkbut" or "Gold image", and this is said to be probably the meaning of another of its names the Red Idol." The second image we have seen was made of

¹ *Mahāvastu* ed. Senart. T I Int^a p 2 p 109

² J R A. S. Vol xix p 167 164

t'u-shi This word written 銅石 (or 銅) is here rendered by Julien *l'auton*, but in some other passages he translates it by *cunre jaune*. Native dictionaries and glossaries also give different and conflicting explanations of the two characters. These are sometimes treated by native scholars as two words, but they evidently stand for one word which is apparently a foreign one, perhaps the Turkish word *tuy* which denotes *bronze*. Chinese interpreters use *t'u-shi*, called also *t'u-sü* (| 𨾏), to translate the Sanskrit *rūṭi* "bell metal", "bronze", and also as the equivalent of *tāmrika* from *tāmra* which means "copper". It is also described as a "stone like gold", and as a metal made from copper, being yellow when of good quality. It seems to be sometimes used in the sense of "copper ore", but in these Records we may generally render it by *bronze*. This bronze image has been identified with the "female figure 120 feet high" of Captain Talbot, who says this, like the other image, was hewn out of the conglomerate rock. It is also the White Idol of the Persian account which also makes it to have been cut in the rock and calls it a female figure. It is about $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile to the left of the larger image. We cannot explain away Yuan-chuang's statement that the image was made of metal by the hypothesis that it was of stone covered with metal. If the *Shih-mameh* is the image east of the monastery then Yuan-chuang was misinformed as to its material.

The description continues.

In a monastery 12 or 13 *li* to the east of the capital was a recumbent image of the Buddha in Nirvana above 1000 feet long. Here the king held the Quinquennial Assembly at which he was wont to give away to the monks all his possessions from the queen down, his officials afterwards redeeming the valuables from the monks.

In the D text and in the Fang-chih the monastery of the Nirvana Buddha is only two or three *li* east from the capital, and this is probably correct. In the Life the Nirvana image is at the monastery near which was the *tuy* or bronze Buddha. The length of the Nirvana image

established near Mathura. The greatest of his disciples was Upagupta whom he made his successor as Master of the Vinaya. After this Śanakavāsa went to Kipin, a northern region including Kashmir, or to Champa, but returned to Mathura. There he died and his remains were cremated and a stupa erected over them¹. In order to account for his name and career a story is told about him in a former life. He was then the chief of a caravan of 500 merchants and on his journey he fell in with a Pratyeka Buddha dying in lonely helplessness. The caravan chief devoted himself to the suffering saint, and nursed him with great kindness. This Pratyeka Buddha had an old worn garment of śina, a kind of cloth made from the san hemp, and the caravan chief wished him to change it for a new cotton robe. But the saint declined the offer, not wishing to part with the old robe which was associated for him with all his spiritual progress. The caravan chief expressed his strong desire that when he next was born in this world he should be in all respects like this Pratyeka Buddha. By the merit of his kindness to the Pratyeka Buddha and his prayer he was led to join the Buddhist Order and to wear all his life the linen robe in which he was ordained, and hence he had the name Śanakavasin or "Wearer of linen". The legends about him having been six years in his mother's womb, and having been born in a linen shirt, are only in some of the accounts. This saint, who lived within 100 years after the Buddha, figures in the Divyavadāna and in the Buddhist books of Nepal, Tibet, and China² but he seems to be unknown to the Pali scriptures. We can scarcely regard him as identical with Sonaka, the theri of Rājagaha, mentioned in the Mahāvamsa and other works although in some circumstances there is a resemblance³. The word *shē na*

¹ Fu fa tsang yin yuan chung (or chuan) ch. 2 (No. 1340 tr. A. D. 472). A yu wang chuan (No. 1409, tr. A. D. 300).

² Divyāṇ p. 319. Bud. Lit. Nep. p. 67, Rockhill Life I. 161.

³ Mah. ch. IV. Dip. V. 22.

la in the arhat's name is also explained as meaning *tzü jan fu* (自然服) or 'natural',—"self existing clothing", as if for *sanaka* from *san* which means "eternal", "self existent"

The words here rendered "in 500 existences intermediate and human" are peculiar and merit attention. In all the texts and in the Life the original is *yu-wu pai-shên chung yin sheng-yin* (於五百身中陰生陰), and Juhen translates this by 'pendant cinq cents existences successives'. But this is not all that the author states, and the sense in which I understand the words is evidently something like what the construction requires. It is also apparently the sense in which the author of the *Fang-chih* understood the passage, for he transcribes it *wu-pai chung-yin shên sheng* or "500 intermediate states and human births". The *Chung yin*, called also *chung yu* (中有), is the *antarābhava* or intermediate state, the life elsewhere which intervenes between two existences on this world. Human death or *ssu yin* (死陰) is the dissolution of the skandha (*yin*) which form the living body, and this is followed in due time by a new human birth, the *shêng-yin*, in which the skandha are recombined. In the period which elapses between these two events that which was, and is to be again, the human being, lives on in some other sphere or spheres of existence, and this unknown life is the *chung-yin*. This in the language of the Buddhists is the road which lies between but connects the two villages of Death and Re-birth. The term will be further explained when we come to *Chuan VII*.

KA-PI-SHIH (KAPIS)

The narrative proceeds to relate that the pilgrim

going east from this entered the Snow Mountains crossed a black range and reached *Ka pi shih*. This country was above 4000 *li* in circuit with the Snowy Mountains on its north and having black ranges on its other sides, the capital was above ten *li* in circuit. It yielded various cereals, and fruit and timber, and excellent horses and saffron, many rare commodities from other regions were collected in this country, its climate was

Ka-pi-shih (迦比施),¹ and is described as a great rendezvous for traders. The Sanskrit name is given as *Karpisaya* and this is transcribed in Chinese by *Ka-pi-shê-ye* (却比舍也) As *Kanishka* is *Kanerka* so *Kapis* may be *Kafir* a name which is preserved in the modern *Kafiristan*. As to the area of the country *Cunningham* tells us that if *Yuan-chuang's* "measurement be even approximately correct, the district must have included the whole of *Kafiristan*, as well as the two large valleys of *Ghorband* and *Panjshir*, as these last are together not more than 300 miles in circuit" ²

Among the products of the country here enumerated is one called *Yu-chin*, that is, "saffron" The translators, however, give "*Curcuma*" as the meaning of the word and it is so rendered by others in various books As we have to meet with the word again the reasons for translating it by "saffron" are to be given hereafter

Our narrative proceeds

About three or four li east of the capital under the north mountain was a large monastery with above 300 Brethren all *Hinayanists* Its history the pilgrim learned was this When *Kanishka* reigned in *Gandhara* his power reached the neighbouring States and his influence extended to distant regions As he kept order by military rule over a wide territory reaching to the east of the *Tsung Lang* a tributary state of China to the west of the *Yellow River* through fear of the king's power sent him [princes as] hostages On the arrival of the hostages *Kanishka* treated them with great courtesy and provided them with different residences according to the seasons The winter was spent in *India*, the summer in *Kapis* and the spring and autumn in *Gandhara* At each residence a monastery was erected, this one being at the summer residence Hence the walls of the chambers had paintings of the hostages who in appearance and dress were somewhat like the Chinese When the hostages returned to their homes they fondly remembered their residence here, and continued to send it religious offerings. So the Brethren of this monastery with grateful feelings had kept up religious services on behalf the hostages every year at the beginning and end of the Rain season Retreat To the south of the east door

¹ *Su-kao sêng-chuan, ch 2* (No 1493), *K'ai yuan lu, ch 7*.

² *Anc Geog Ind* p 17.

to take the word in the sense of *New-year*, Mount Arupa having to do homage openly to Shuna deva when the latter was receiving the New-year's worship of the king and grandees of Tsao-ku t'a. The *A-lu-no* of this passage is evidently, as has been conjectured, for Aruna which means "red, the colour of the dawn". In Alberuni we read of the Arupa mountain to the west of Kailāsa and described as covered with perpetual snow and inaccessible.¹ *Shu-na*, also pronounced *Ch'u-na*, may be for Śuna, and *Shu na si lo* may be for Śunāsraur, a pair of ancient gods associated with farming. But *si lo* is perhaps for śilī, "a rock", the name of the mountain being Shuna's rock. This Shuna or Ch'una was the chief god among the people of Tsao ku t'a, but he was feared and worshipped beyond the limits of that country. A deity with a name like this is still worshipped in some of the hill districts beyond India, I believe. He was perhaps originally a sun-god, as Aruna was the dawn, and the name Shun still survives in Manchoo as the word for Sun.

Returning to the Records we read that

above 200 li north west from the capital was a great Snowy Mountain on the top of which was a lake, and prayers made at it for rain or fine weather were answered. The pilgrim then narrates the legend about this lake and its Dragon king. In the time of Kanishka the Dragon king was a fierce malicious creature who in his previous existence had been the novice attending an arhat of Gandhāra. As such in an access of passion and envy he had prayed to become a Naga king in his next birth and accordingly on his death he came into the world as the Dragon king of this lake. Keeping up his old bad feelings he killed the old Dragon king, and sent rain and storm to destroy the trees and the Buddhist monastery at the foot of the mountain. Kanishka enraged at the persistent malice of the creature proceeded to fill up his lake. On this the Dragon king became alarmed and assuming the form of an old brahmin he remonstrated earnestly with the king. In the end the king and the Dragon made a covenant by which Kanishka was to rebuild the monastery and erect a tope, the latter was to serve as a lookout and when the watchman on this observed dark clouds rising on

¹ Vol II p 143

vaksha On a mountain two or three *li* west of the caves was an image of Kuan tzu t'ai P'u-sa to devotees of perfect earnestness the P'u-sa would come forth from the image and comfort them with the sight of his beautiful body Above 30 *li* south east from the capital was the Rahula monastery with its marvel working tope built by a statesman named Rahula

Above forty *li* south from the capital was the city called *Si p'i to fa la tzu* (多伐剌祠) When the rest of the region was visited by earthquakes and landslips this city and all round it were quite undisturbed

For the name of the city here transcribed Julien who transliterates the last character *see* suggests Sphitavaras as the possible Sanskrit original and Saint Martin proposes Śvetavāras But the last character *see* or *tsu* is one of those which the Chinese do not like to use in transcriptions and it is probably a Chinese word in the sense of *temple* The other characters may stand for Śvetavat one of the epithets of Indra the god who rides a white (sveta) elephant Thus the name of the city would be Śvetavat alaya the Abode or Shrine of Indra

To the south of this city and at a distance of above 30 *li* from it was the *A lu no* Mountain steep and lofty with gloomy cliffs and gorges Every [New] year the summit increased in height several hundreds of feet appearing to look towards the *Shu na si lo* Mountain in *Tsao-ku t'a* and then it suddenly collapsed The explanation given to the pilgrim by the natives was this Once the god *Shu na* arriving from afar wanted to stop on this mountain but the god of the mountain becoming alarmed made a convulsion *Shu na* deva then said to him—

You make this commotion because you do not want me to lodge with you if you had granted me a little hospitality I should have filled you with riches now I go to the *Tsao ku t'a* country to the *Shu na si lo* mountain and every [New] year when I am receiving the worship and offerings of the king and statesmen you are to be a subordinate spectator Hence the *A lu no* mountain increases its height and then suddenly collapses

For the "New year" of this rendering the original is simply *su* (歲) "year", but it was evidently at a particular time of the year that the mountain prolonged its summit. A native scholar was of the opinion that the word *su* in this passage meant *harvest* the time when thank offerings were made to the god for the good crops But it is perhaps better

to take the word in the sense of *New-year*, Mount Aruna having to do homage openly to Shuna deva when the latter was receiving the New-year's worship of the king and grandees of Tsao-ku-t'a. The *A-lu-no* of this passage is evidently, as has been conjectured, for Aruna which means "red, the colour of the dawn". In Alberuni we read of the Aruna mountain to the west of Kailāsa and described as covered with perpetual snow and inaccessible.¹ *Shu-na*, also pronounced *Ch'u-na*, may be for Śuna, and *Shu-na si lo* may be for Śunasīrau, a pan of ancient gods associated with farming. But *si lo* is perhaps for śilā, "a rock", the name of the mountain being Shuna's rock. This Shuna or Ch'u-na was the chief god among the people of Tsao-ku-t'a, but he was feared and worshipped beyond the limits of that country. A deity with a name like this is still worshipped in some of the hill districts beyond India, I believe. He was perhaps originally a sun-god, as Aruna was the dawn, and the name Shun still survives in Manchoo as the word for Sun.

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¹ Vol II p 143

the mountain the gong was to be at once sounded whereupon the bad temper of the Dragon would cease. The tope still continued to be used for the purpose for which it was erected. It was reported to contain flesh and bone relics of the Ju lai about a pint in quantity and from these proceeded countless miracles.

In Julien's translation of the passage from which the above has been condensed there occurs a sentence in which the original does not seem to have been properly understood. The words here rendered "assuming the form of an old brahmin he remonstrated earnestly with the king" are in Julien's translation *prit la forme d'un vieux Brahmane se prosterna devant l'elephant du roi et adressa a Kanichla des representations*. For the words which I have put in italics the Chinese is *Kou uang hsiang erh chien* (叩王象而諫) literally "striking the king's elephant he remonstrated". But the meaning is simply "he sternly reproved" or "earnestly remonstrated with". The expression corresponds to the common Chinese phrase *Kou ma chien* literally "striking his horse reprove". But there is no *striking* of either horse or elephant the expression being figurative. To make the brahmin kotow to the elephant is neither Chinese nor Indian and it spoils the story. The phrase *K'ou hsiang* occurs again in *Chuan VI* and Julien again make the same curious mistake. His translation (p. 326) is there even less appropriate than it is here.

To the north west of the capital on the south bank of a large river was an Old King's Monastery which had a milk tooth one inch long of Sakya Pusa. South east from this was another monastery also called "Old King's" and in this was a slice of Jula's ushnisha above an inch wide of a yellow white colour with the hair pores distinct. It had also a hair of Jula's head of a dark violet colour above a foot long but curled up to about half an inch. The ushnisha was worshipped by the king and great officials on the six fast days. To the south west of this monastery was the Old Queen's monastery in which was a gilt copper tope above 100 feet high said to contain relics of Buddha.

It is curious to find our pilgrim here telling of a slice of Buddha's ushnisha as existing in Kapis. I chung also writes of the Jula's *ting lu* or ushnisha as being in this

country¹ Our pilgrim, we shall see presently, agreeing with Fa-hsien makes the city Hilo in another country possess the ushnisha apparently in a perfect state As Hilo was a dependency of Kapis we may regard I-ching's pilgrims as paying reverence to the ushnisha of Hilo and getting their fortunes from it But we cannot understand how a monastery in Kapis had a piece of the ushnisha at the same time that the whole of it was in Hilo Then a century or so after our pilgrim's time Wu-k'ung found the ushnisha relic of Sakya Ju-lai in the *Yen-t'i-li* vihāra of Kanishka in Gandhāra It was near the capital of Gandhāra also that Wu-k'ung saw the Dragon-king monastery which Yuan-chuang places 200 *li* north-west from the capital of Kapis²

To the south west of the capital was the *Pi lo sho lo* Mountain This name was given to the mountain from its presiding genius who had the form of an elephant and was therefore called *Pi lo sho lo* While the Julai was on earth this god once invited him and the 1200 great arhats to his mountain, and here on a large flat rock he gave the Julai worship and entertainment On this rock king Asoka afterwards built a tope above 100 feet high This tope, which was supposed to contain about a pint of the Buddha's relics, was known to the people at the time of Yuan-chuang's visit as the *Pi lo sho lo* tope

To the north of this tope and at the base of a cliff was a Dragon Spring In it the Buddha and the 1200 arhats cleansed their mouths and chewed their tooth sticks, after eating the food supplied to them by the god, their tooth sticks being planted took root and became the dense wood existing at the time of the pilgrim's visit People who lived after the Buddha's time erected at the place a monastery to which they gave the name *Ping* (or *Pi-to-ka* 轉鐸法)

The *Pi-lo sho* (or *so-lo*) of this passage translated by the Chinese as "Elephant-solid", has been restored by Julien as *Pilusura* This was the name of the tutelary god of the mountain and of the mountain itself, and it was the name given to the Asoka tope erected on one of the rocks of the mountain

* 1 Hsi yü chiu ch 1, 2 and Chavannes Memoires p 24 103

2 Shih li ching, Chavannes in J A T VI p 307

A note added to the Chinese text here tells us that *Ping* (or *Pi*) *to-la* is in Chinese *Chio-yang-chuh* (嚼楊枝) literally "chew willow twig" This is the term used to describe the Buddha and his arhats chewing their tooth-sticks in the operation of cleansing their mouths, and it is the common phrase in Chinese Buddhist works to denote this operation One of the Chinese names for the tooth stick which the bhikshu was ordered to use daily was *Yang chuh* or "willow twig", but in India at least the tooth-stick was not made of willow We are not obliged to accept the native annotator's translation of the foreign word here, and it is apparently not correct It will be noticed that the name *Ping-to-la*, according to our pilgrim, was given to the monastery built here by people who lived after the time of the Buddha and his arhats, and apparently at a period when there was a thick clump of trees at the place The transcription in the text may possibly represent the word *Pindaka* used in the sense of a *clump of trees*, the monastery being called the *Pindaka-vihara*

CHAPTER V.

CHUAN IL.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF INDIA

ITS NAMES

The pilgrim having now arrived at the frontiers of the great country which he calls *Yin-tu* (India) gives his readers a "Pisgah-sight" of the land before taking them through its various kingdoms. And first he tells them of its name and its meaning and probable origin. His statements about the name may be roughly rendered as follows—

We find that different counsels have confused the designations of *T'ien chu* (India), the old names were *Shên-tu* and *Sien* (or *Hien*)-*tou*, now we must conform to the correct pronunciation and call it *Yin tu*. The people of *Yin tu* use local appellations for their respective countries, the various districts having different customs, adopting a general designation, and one which the people like, we call the country *Yin-tu* which means the "Moon".

This rendering differs in some respects from that given by Julien which is neither very clear nor correct. Here, however, as in several other passages of the Records, it is not easy to make out the precise meaning of the author's statements. It is plain, however, that he is not dealing with names given to India generally but only with those used in Chinese books. Then his words would seem to indicate that he regarded *T'ien-chu*, *Shên-tu*, and *Sien-tou* as only dialectical varieties or mistaken transcriptions of *Yin-tu*, which was the standard pronunciation. Further his language does not seem to intimate, as Julien under-

stood it to intimate, that Yin-tu was the name for all India used by the inhabitants of the country. In some other works we find it stated that Yin-tu was the native name for the whole country, and Indu-deśa given as the original Sanskrit term. Our author may have had this opinion but this does not seem to be the meaning of his statements here. On the contrary he apparently wishes us to understand that the natives of India had only designations of their own States, such as Magadha and Kausambhi, and that they were without a general name under which these could be included. It was the peoples beyond, as for example the Turks, who gave the name Yin-tu, and the Hu who gave Sin-tu, to a great territory of uncertain limits. Then the Buddhist writers of Kashmir, Gandhāra, and other countries beyond India proper, seem also to have sometimes used the name Yin-tu. But, as I-ching tells us, although this word may mean "moon" yet it was not the current name for India. In Buddhist literature India is called Jambudvīpa, and portions of it Āryadeśa and Madhyadeśa.¹ One of the other names for India to be found in Buddhist literature is Indravarḍhana. But in the Chinese accounts of letters or missions sent by Indian rajahs to the court of China the rajahs are only represented as styling themselves kings of special countries in India. Thus the great Śīlāditya, who treated our pilgrim with great honour, is made in Chinese history to call himself king of Magadha.

Let us now examine in detail Yuan-chuang's statements about the terms he quotes as used in China to denote India and the history of these terms. The old name, as he tells us, is that which he, following precedent, writes *Shên-tu* (殷都) as the characters are now pronounced. This word emerges in Chinese history in the account which the famous envoy Chang Ch'ien (Kien) gives of his experiences in the Ta-hsia country (Bactria). In that we

¹ Nan-hai-ch'i-kuei, ch. 25; Hunter's Ind. Emp. p. 83.

read that when Chang returned from his mission to the West he reported to Han Wu Ti (apparently about B. C. 123) that when in Ta-hsia he had seen bamboo poles and cloth from a district which is now comprised in the Province of Ssüchuan. He had been told, he relates, that these commodities had been obtained at Shên tu, as the name of the place is given in the ordinary texts of his report to the Emperor. Now Chinese writers tell us, and Western scholars have adopted and repeated the statements, that the Shên-tu of this story was India, and that all the other designations for that country in Chinese books such as Hsien-tou, Hsien-tu, Kan tu, K'uan (or Yuan)-tu, T'ien chu, T'ien-tu, and Yin-tu are only phonetic corruptions of Shên tu. These opinions seem to have been lightly formed and heedlessly followed, and it may be useful for us to enquire whether they have a good basis.

In the first place then we find that there is doubt as to what was the precise form of the name of the country in Chang's statement. So instead of the character for *Shên* in Shên-tu given above we meet with several various readings. Such are 訖 and 訖 which probably represent one sound, something like *Get* or *K'at*. Now a foreign name like *K'atu* or *Gachu* as a name for India seems to have been in use. Then a third various reading for the Shên of Shên-tu is K'ien or Kan (乾) which may have been originally a copyist's slip for one of the characters read *K'at*.¹ We find also a fourth various reading for the syllable Shên of Shên-tu, viz.—K'uan or Yun (捐).² But the country described in Chinese literature under the name Yun tu was evidently one to the east or north-east of all that has been called India.³ Then accepting the character now read Shên as the genuine text of Chang's

¹ Shih chi (史記) ch 123, Commentary. In the Tung chuen-kang mu, ch 4, Yuan shou (元狩) 1st y, this passage of the Shih chi is quoted with the reading *Kan-tu* (乾竺) instead of *Shên tu*. See also Kanghsi Dict. s. v. 身.

² Han Shu, ch 96.

³ Tung chih hao, the Tu yü hao, ch I, Han Shu, l c.

report we are told that in this name it is to be pronounced like *in* or *yin*. This does not seem very improbable. But an etymological authority tells us that the character in question has in this name the sound *Tien*¹. There may be some truth in this statement. But it is not supported by authority and seems rather fanciful.

The district or region which the envoy Chang reported as named let us continue to say Shen tu, is briefly described by him and others of the Han period. It was several thousand *li* south east from Bactria near a river (or sea) its inhabitants used elephants in fighting. Some writers describe them as Buddhists, and they were in many respects like the people of Bactria or like the Geti (Yue ti) according to another account. Their country was about 2000 *li* south west from what is now the Cheng tu and Ning yuan districts in Ssuchuan and it had a regular trade with the merchants of the Cheng tu district, some of whom seem to have settled in it. Further, this country was not far from the western border of the Chinese empire in the Han time and it was on the way from China to Bactria. So though the name Shen tu came to be afterwards given to India yet in its first use it apparently denoted a small region in what is now Yunnan and Burmah².

The name Hsien tou was apparently applied to a region different from that designated Shen tu³. Like Hsien tu (縣度), of which term it is perhaps only a variety this name was probably used first by the Chinese for the Indus

¹ Wen ch'i tien chu (聞奇典 卷一), ch 2 p 22. The change of Shen tu into Tien tu may point to a Burmese pronunciation of Sindu as Thindu.

² Han Shu ch 93, Hou Han Shu ch 88, Ma T' i ch 338 gives much information about India compiled not very carefully from previous authorities, his account is translated in Julien's *Mélanges* 1 147.

³ But Hsien (Hien) tou (縣都) came to be used as a name for India and we find it described as a native designation for the whole country properly called Indravaradhana. Su kao seng chuan ch 9. See also Fang chih ch 1.

called Sindhu in Sanskrit. The name was afterwards extended by them to a mountainous region, perhaps Ladakh, through which the Indus flows. We find the Hsien tu country mentioned in the same passages of the Han History with Shên tu.

We next come to T'ien chu (天竺) and Tien-tu (犍竺) said to represent only one name pronounced something like Tendu or Tintok. We are told by one Chinese writer that the name Tien chu was first applied to India in the Han Ho-Ti period (A D 89 to 106) but the authority for the statement is not given. Another account makes Mêng K'an (about A D 230) the first to identify Tien chu with Shên tu, but this likewise is unsupported by authority. We are also told that the *chu* (竺) of Tien chu is a short way of writing *tu* (犍), a statement which is open to very serious doubt.¹ This word *tu* occurs in the ancient classical literature, and native students declare that it represents an earlier *chu*. This is specially noted with reference to the occurrence of *tu* in a wellknown passage of the "Lun-Yü". Then as to the first part of the name there seems to have been an old and perhaps dialectical pronunciation of the character as *Hien* or *Hui*. This pronunciation is found at present in the dialect of Shro-wu foo in the Province of Fuhkeen in which 天竺 is read *Hien-tu*.²

But what was the sound originally represented by the character now read *Chu* in the compound T'ien-chu? It seems that no satisfactory and decisive answer can be given at present to this question. We find that in the Han period the character represented several sounds which cannot be said to be very like each other. The upper part *chu* meaning *bamboo* is not significant here, we are told, but only phonetic, and the lower part is significant, and refers the word to the category *earth*. The character might then be read something like *du*, but this account

¹ Shih chi 1 c

² The Chinese Recorder for September 1891, p 408

of the syllable may be doubted, as we learn also that the character was read like *teh*, an old and still current pronunciation of the word for *bamboo*. Then this same character was also read as *chuh*, *tuh*, *kat*, and *ko* or *gou*.¹ Something like the last was perhaps the earliest pronunciation of the character, and this is probably a corruption or abbreviation of a form like *kao* (蒿) or *lung* (筍). This last form, unknown to the dictionaries apparently, occurs often in Japanese texts of Buddhist books instead of the character for *chu*. Now in the fact that *ko* or *gou* was an old sound of this character we have an explanation of a proper name found in the Tibetan version of the Buddhist "Sutra in Forty-two Sections". One of the two Indian monks who came to China in the time of Han Ming Ti, and translated or drew up the above scripture, is styled in Chinese text *Chu Fa-lan*. These words apparently represented an Indian name like Dharmā-pushpa, that is, Flower of Buddhism. Now the Tibetans transcribing the sounds of the characters for Chu Fa-lan according to their own language wrote apparently *Go-ba-ran* and this became in the modern transcription *Gobharana*. This last word is neither Sanscrit nor Tibetan, but it has been adopted by Feer who has been followed by Beal and Eitel. That Chu in such expressions as Chu-Fa-lan (竺法蘭), is not part of the name, but means "India" or "Indian" we know from its occurrence in other expressions of a similar kind. We may also infer it, in this case, from the fact that it does not occur in some old editions of the above-mentioned scripture, which have only Fa-lan as the name of the Indian monk. So also in another Tibetan work we find him described as "Bhuvan Pandita".² There is also another word in which we may perhaps

¹ Shuo wên, ed. Kuei Fu hsio s. v. 筍. In the Fo kuo chi this character must be pronounced like *Tuh* or *Tak* as it forms the first syllable of the name Takshasila.

² Feer's Le Sūtra en 42 Articles p. 47, Ssū shih êrh chang ching, and Bun No 678 and App^x II col I, Journal Bengal A S No Lii p. 89, Huth, Geschichte d. Bud. in d. Mongolei, tr. from Tibetan, S. 101.

recognize the /o pronunciation of our character *chü*. This word is the old "Tingut", more correctly Tan ku which was the Turkish Persian designation for the country now called Tibet¹. It is not improbable that, as some have supposed this Tan ku is simply the *T'ien chü* of Chinese writers. And so this last may have been originally a Turkish term used to denote a country immediately to the west of China and between that country and Bactria.

T'ien tu on the other hand was the name of a place in the Eastern Sea mentioned in the "Shan hai-ching" along with *Chao-hsien* or Korea. This place was afterwards identified wrongly with the *T'ien chü* of writers on India and Buddhism². But we find mention also of another *T'ien tu* (written in the same way) a small country to the west of China which has been supposed by some to be the Shen tu of Chang Chien.

Whatever the name *T'ien-chü* may have signified originally however, it came to be given by the Chinese in their literature to the great extent of territory between the Bay of Bengal and the Arabian Sea and reaching from the Kapis country in the north to Ceylon in the south. Thus used it supplanted the old *Shen tu*, and all other names for India among the Chinese, and it continued to be the general literary designation for that country down to the Tang period when the new name *Yin tu* was brought into fashion. We even find the term *T'ien-chü* used with a wider application and it is employed as a synonym for "Buddhist countries", for example in a title given to the "Fo kuo chi" of Fa hsien. Nor has the term been quite put out of use by Yuan chuang's correct name *Yintu* and Yuan chuang himself continues to use it occasionally. We find also each of its component parts

¹ Georgius Alib Tib. p. 10. In the *Hai kuo tu chih* it is expressly stated that *T'ien chü* has been identified with the modern Hsi Tsang or Tibet.

² *Shan hai ching* ch. 18.

sometimes made to do duty for the whole. This *Chung-T'ien* and *Hsi T'ien* are respectively Middle and West India, while *Chu* in the Han and Chin periods and later was commonly used for India or Indian a way in which *Hsi T'ien* is also used.

Leaving *T'ien chu* to continue as a Chinese name for India Yüan chuan^o puts aside what he considers to be the corruptions of the term *Yin tu* and proceeds to use that form as the correct designation of the country. He goes on to suggest a reason for this word meaning "moon" having come to be so employed. His explanation is apparently as follows—

The unceasing revolutions of mortals' existences are a dark long night were there not a warden of the dawn they would be like the night with its lights which succeeds the setting of the sun although the night have the light of the stars that is not to be compared to the light of the clear moon. Hence probably India was likened to the moon as [since the sun of the Buddha set] it has had a succession of holy and wise men to teach the people and exercise rule as the moon sheds its bright influences—on this account the country has been called *Yin tu*.

The comparison and explanation of our author, it must be admitted are sorry things, and they are not improved in any of the translations. But the passage has probably some copyist's mistakes and we must at least supply a clause which apparently has dropt out of the text. This clause is the important phrase *Fo jih chu yin* (佛日既隱) which means "when the sun of the Buddha set." I have restored these words within square brackets in the body of the pilgrim's explanation, but it is probable that they occurred at the head of it also. The "long night" of the text is the interminable succession of renewed existences to non-Buddhists, and to the Buddhists the period between the death of one Buddha and the advent of another, but it is rather a state of affairs than a tract of time. It denotes a condition of spiritual darkness to mankind an endless repetition of mortal life in many varieties, each life ignorant of the one before and without any hint of the one to follow. There is no Buddha in the world, and

so there is no one to end the night, and bring in the dawn of Nirvana. The Buddha is the *Ssü chen* (司晨) or Warden of the Dawn, the officer in charge of daybreak who ushers in the light of intelligence and the perfect way.

Now on earth, when the "lights of night" succeed the setting of the sun, there are stars, and there is the moon. The stars however, have only a shining, the brightness of a glow. But the moon has a light which illuminates and influences the world, and which transcends in brightness all other lights of the night. So other lands have had sporadic sages who made a glory for themselves revolving each in his own peculiar eccentric orbit. But India had a regular succession of great Sages who 'followed the great wheel' of ancient authority each successor only expounding, renewing or developing the wise teachings of his divine or human predecessors, thus keeping the light of primitive revelation shining among mortals. In Buddhist writings the Buddha is often compared to the moon, while the stars are sometimes the rival teachers of his time, and occasionally his own great disciples.

A later Chinese writer, apparently under the impression that he had the authority of Yuan chuang for the statement, tells us that *Tien-chu* means moon. But he, like several other authors, explains the giving of this name to India in a different way from that described by the pilgrim. He says that the country was called *Tien chu* or Moon because it was as great and distinguished above the other countries of the world, as the moon is great among the stars of night—"velut inter ignes Luna minore." Other writers, like I ching for example, are more discreet and refrain from proposing any explanation of the name for India. Admitting, they say, *Yin tu* to be a Sanskrit term denoting the moon, yet it was not for that reason that the Chinese gave it as a name to the country. It is the same the universal one. *Yin tu* is the Chinese name for India as *Chu na* and *Chen tan* are terms used to denote China, and apart from these the name *Tien chu*

have no signification¹ This is going too far, and the word India at least has a satisfactory explanation When our pilgrim enquired about the size and form of the country, he was told that it was shaped like a crescent or as it is in the text a half moon The term used was apparently *Indu kala*, transcribed *Yin te la lo* (印特伽羅)² This word means a *digit of the moon* or a *crescent*, but it is rendered in Chinese simply by *yueh* or *moon* It was perhaps this fact which led to the absurd comparison and explanation of our text

Our author in this passage mentions another general name for India viz—Country of the brahmins (*P'o lo men kuo*)

Among the various castes and clans of the country the brahmins he says were purest and in most esteem So from their excellent reputation the name *Brahmana country* had come to be a popular one for India.

Now this is also a foreign designation, and one used by the Chinese especially It does not seem to have been ever known or at least current, in India In Chinese literature we find it employed during the Sui period (A.D. 589 to 618) but it is rather a literary than a popular designation In the shortened form *Fan kuo* (梵國) however, the name has long been in common use in all kinds of Chinese literature

The territory which Yuan chuang calls *Yin-tu* was mapped off by him as by others into five great divisions called respectively North East West, Central and South *Yin tu* The whole territory, he tells us

was above 90 000 *li* in circuit with the Snowy Mountains (the Hindu Kush) on the north and the sea on its three other sides It was politically divided into above seventy kingdoms, the heat of summer was very great and the land was to a large extent marshy The northern region was hilly with a brackish soil,

¹ Nan hai chi kuei I c

² Supplement to *I ch'ie ch'ing yin yu* c/ 3 This of course is not the origin of the name for India but it may account for the Chinese use of *Yin tu* as a designation for the country

the east was a rich fertile plain, the southern division had a luxuriant vegetation, and the west had a soil coarse and gravelly.

INDIAN MEASURES OF SPACE

Our author now proceeds to give the names of measures of space and time which were in use among the people of India or were taught in their standard books of learning and religion

He begins at the top of the gradation with the *Yojana* which, he says, had always represented a day's journey for a royal army The old Chinese equivalent for it, he says, was 40 *li*, the people of India counted it as thirty *li*, while the Buddhist books treated it as equal to only sixteen *li*

We are not told, however, that in India the *Yojana* varied in different places and at different times

Then the *Yojana*, he states, was divided into eight *Krosa*, the *Krosa* into 500 *Bows* the *Bow* into four *Cubits*, and the *Cubit* into twenty four *Fingers* Forgetting, apparently, to mention the division of the *Finger* into three *Joints* *Yuan chuang* proceeds to state the division of the *Finger joint* into seven *Wheat* (properly *Barley*) grains Thence the subdivision by sevens is carried on through the *Louse*, the *Nit*, *Crevice dust*, *Ox hair* [*Dust*], *Sheep wool* [*Dust*] *Hare hair* [*Dust*], *Copper* [*Dust*], *Water* [*Dust*], and *Fine Dust* to *Extremely Fine Dust* This last is the ultimate monad of matter and is indivisible

This enumeration of Indian measures of space was apparently written down from memory, and it does not quite agree with any of the other accounts we have In the *Abhidharmamahāvibhāṣa* *lun*,¹ compiled by the 500 *Arhats* and translated by *Yuan chuang*, we find a similar enumeration, leaving it undecided, however, whether "seven copper-dusts" made one "Water-dust", or seven of the latter made one of the former In this, and in the other books in which we find the measures of space given, the word for *dust* is added to each of the terms *Ox-hair*, *Sheep-wool*, *Hare's-hair*, *Copper*, and *Water*, and I have accordingly inserted it in the version here given of *Yuan chuang's* account Instead of *t'ung*, *copper*, the *D* text has *chun*, *gold*, perhaps

¹ *Abhidharma ta vibhāṣa lun ch* 136 (*Bun No* 1263).

used in the sense of *metal*, and this is the reading of Yuan chuang's "Abhidharma-tsang-hsien-tsung-lun" Then the "Abhidharma-kośa-lun", which also has *chun* instead of *tung*, makes seven "metal-dusts" equivalent to one "water-dust" thus reversing Yuan chuang's arrangement¹ The word *dust* here should perhaps be replaced by *atom* or *particle*

Another enumeration of Indian measures of space is given in the Lahtavistara and its translations Tibetan and Chinese, and another in the Avadāna XXXIII of the Divyāvadana of Messrs Cowell and Neil² The latter is represented in the Chinese collection of Buddhist books by four treatises In none of all these works is there anything corresponding to the words "copper" and "water" of our authors list Moreover each of them makes the Window-Dust or Sunbeam-mote—the "Crevice-Dust" of our author—to be one seventh of a Hare (or Moon)-Dust and equal to seven particles of Fine Dust Juhen took the "copper water" of our text to be one term and translated it by "l'eau de cuivre (Tamrapa)", but this is undoubtedly wrong³ In this gradation of measures the "Extremely Fine Dust" is a monad of thought, a logical necessity, and has no separate existence in matter The lowest actual unit of matter is the *anu* of the Divyāvadana, which is the "Fine Dust" of our author This too, however, though visible to the deva sight, is invisible to the human sight and impalpable to the other human senses But it is a material substance, the most minute of all material

¹ Abhidharma tsang hsien tsung lun, *ch* 17 (No 1266), Abhidharma kosa lun *ch* 12 (No 1267)

² Lahtavistara *ch* 12 Foucaux's Rgya cher rol pa, p 142 and note, Fang kuang ta chuang yen chung *ch* 4 (No 159), Divyav p 644 Matanga sutra *ch* 2 (No 645)

³ See also the Tsa abhidharma hsien lun, *ch* 2 (No 1288), Alberuni *ch* XXXIV and XXXVII, Abhidharma shun cheng li lun, *ch* 32 In this treatise we have all the measures of space given by Yuan chuang but the "Metal dust" is one seventh of the "Water-dust" It gives also the division of the Finger into three Finger • joints

sizes and quantities, and the ultimate atom into which dust or metal or water can be analysed. It takes seven of these, according to some, to equal one Atom (*truṣṭi* or *tutṭi*), and seven of these to make one Sunbeam-mote. If we omit the two words "Copper" and "Water" from our text, and remove the term "Crevice-Dust" to its place, we have an enumeration of measures which agrees substantially with that of the *Divyāvadāna* up to the *Kroṣa*. Some of the Chinese texts represent the *Kroṣa*, translated by *sheng* (聲) a sound, to be 2000 Bows, and in some the Barley-grain is subdivided, not as by *Yuan-chuang*, but into seven Mustard-seeds.

MEASURES OF TIME.

Our author next goes on to describe the measures of time in India beginning with the divisions of the Day-night period. Here also he mainly follows *Saṅghabhadra's* treatise¹, and differs from most other writers, Buddhist and orthodox.

He calls the *Kṣhana* the shortest space of time and makes 120 of it equal to one *Tatkṣhana*. Then 60 *Tatkṣhanas* make one *Lata*. 30 *Latas* make one *Muhurta*, five of these make one "time" (𑖀𑖡𑖛), and six 'times' make one Day night. The six 'times' of this last are, we are told, distributed equally between the day and the night. But the non-Buddhist people of India *Yuan chuang* tells us, divided the day and night each into four "times".

It will be seen that *Yuan chuang* here puts the *Kṣhana* below the *Tatkṣhana*, in this agreeing with the *Abhidharma* treatises of *Saṅghabhadra* and *Dharmataṭa*. The *Divyāvadāna*, on the other hand makes 120 *Tatkṣhanas* equal to one *Kṣhana*, and 60 *Kṣhanas* equal to one *Lata*. In some Chinese versions of the sacred books the *tatkṣhana* is not mentioned. The *kṣhana* is defined as the time occupied by a woman in spinning one *hsun* (𑖇𑖡𑖛) of thread, but the word is generally used by Buddhist writers in

* 1 *Abhidharma shun chēng li lun*, l c. For the measures of Time generally see the references in the above note 3 on p 142

the sense of an *instant*, the *twinkling of an eye*, the *very shortest measurable space of time*

The word *kshan* is commonly transcribed in Chinese books as in our text, and it is rarely translated. The *lava* is sometimes rendered by *shih* (時), *time*, and sometimes by *fen* (分), a *division*. So also *Muhurta* is sometimes translated by *shih*, *time*, but more frequently by *hsu yu* (須臾), an *instant* or *moment*, such being also the original meaning of *muhurta*. But *hsu-yu* when used as a translation of this word does not denote an *instant* but a period of 48 minutes, the thirtieth part of a Day-night. The day is divided into three "times", viz forenoon, noon, and afternoon, and hence it is called *Trisandhya*. In like manner the night is divided into three "times" or watches and hence it is called *Triyama*.

Our author next goes on to enumerate the divisions, natural and artificial, of the month and the year in India. He distinguishes between the common four-fold division of the seasons, and the three-fold one used by Buddhists. The latter division was into a hot season (*Grishma*) followed by a rainy season (*Varsha*), and then a cold season (*Hemanta*). We have next the names of the months of the year in their order beginning with *Chaitra*. Then comes an interesting passage which, as it appears in our texts, presents some difficulty. The meaning seems to be something like this—

"Hence the professed Buddhists of India, complying with the sacred instructions of the Buddha, observe (lit sit) two periods of Retreat either the early or the later three months. The former period begins on our 16th day of the 5th month and the latter on the 16th of the 6th month. Previous translators of the *Sūtras* and *Vinaya* use 'Observe the summer' or 'Observe the end of the winter'. These mistranslations are due to the people of outlying lands not understanding the standard language, or to the non harmonizing of provincialisms.

The first sentence of this passage evidently means that the Buddhist monks of India could make either the former or the later three months of summer their period of Retreat. My interpretation of the passage differs a little

from that of Julien who substitutes *yu* (雨) *rain*, for the *liang* (兩) *two*, of the text, supporting his change of reading by a quotation of the present passage in a Buddhist Cyclopedia. But one of two copies of this Cyclopedia in my possession gives *liang* and the other has *huo* (或). Moreover all texts of the "Hsi yu chi" seem to agree in having *liang* here and we read in other books of two and even three periods of Retreat. For the monks of India, however, these were all included within the Rain season, the four months which began with the 16th of their fourth month and ended on the 15th of the 8th month. The full period of Retreat was three months, and Buddha ordained that this period might be counted either from the middle of the fourth or the middle of the fifth month. The conjecture may be hazarded that Yuan-chuang originally wrote *liang yu* (兩 雨)-*an chu* that is "two Rain Retreats" and that a copyist thinking there was a mistake left out the second character. This restoration does not make good style but something of the kind is apparently needed as Yuan chuang's expression for the Retreat was *yu an chu*.

The Sanskrit term for the Retreat is Varshā (in Pali Vassā) which means simply *rains*, the *rainy season*, from *varsha* which denotes, along with other things *rain* and *a year*. The usual expression for "keeping Retreat" is *varsham vas* (in Pali *vassam vasati*) or *varsham stha*, meaning respectively to reside and to rest, during the rainy season. For these terms the Chinese give various equivalents such as the *Tso hsia* and *Tso la* of some, and the *Tso an-chu* or *Tso yu an chu* of Yuan chuang and others. For the Buddhists of India as for the other people of that country the "rainy season" began on the 16th of the month Ashādha (the fourth of their year), and continued for four months. This was chiefly for religious purposes, but to the non Buddhists of India three months of this period formed also their summer. This may help to explain the use of the phrase *Tso hsia* which is a short form for the full expression *Tso hsia yu an-chu* meaning "to observe the Summer Rain Retreat". Then *Tso hsia*

and Tso la mean also to pass a year as an ordained monk, the precedence of a brother being settled by his "years in religion" The phrase *Tso la* or *Tso la an-chu* is used specially of the strict anchorite who observed two Retreats one in the summer and one in the winter It might be also applied to brethren in strange lands, Tokhara for example whose Rainy season occurred at the end of the winter Yuan chuang seems to think that the terms Tso Hsia and Tso La are not correct renderings from the Sanskrit and they certainly are not literal translations He supposes the mistakes to have arisen either from the translators having been natives of countries remote from Mid India and so ignorant of the correct term and its proper pronunciation, or from the use of an expression which had only local application and currency But the "non-harmonizing of provincialisms" denotes not only the misuse of local terms but also ignorance of the idioms in one language which should be used to represent the corresponding idioms of another Thus a Chinese or Indian scholar translating a Sanskrit book into Chinese without a thorough knowledge of the Sanskrit and Chinese idioms would not harmonize the countries' languages Julien takes "Mid kingdom" here to mean China but it certainly denotes Mid India In that region people called the Rainy season Varsha but in other places the word was pronounced *lasso*, or *barh*, or *barlh*, or *barsh* So translators Yuan chuang thinks may have in some cases mistaken the word, or they may have misunderstood either the original or the Chinese term they were using in translation Thus the important fact that the Retreat was ordained on account of the Rains is put out of view by the renderings Tso Hsia and Tso La There was not, however, any ignorance of Sanskrit or Chinese in the use of these terms, and good scholars in the two languages such as Fa hsien and I ching use Tso-hsia and An chu indifferently In countries in which there was no long regular Rainy season the Retreat became of importance as a time for spiritual improvement by study of the sacred

books and prolonged meditation, and as giving a year's seniority to the brother among his brethren

CITIES AND HOUSES

We have next a short description of the general characters of the cities and buildings of India. The passage is an interesting one and the meaning may be given somewhat as follows—

"As to their inhabited towns and cities the quadrangular walls of the cities (or according to one text, of the various regions) are broad and high, while the thoroughfares are narrow tortuous passages. The shops are on the highways and booths (or, inns) line the roads. Butchers, fishermen, public performers, executioners, and scavengers have their habitations marked by a distinguishing sign. They are forced to live outside the city and they sneak along on the left when going about in the hamlets. As to the construction of houses and enclosing walls, the country being low and moist, most of the city-walls are built of bricks, while walls of houses and inclosures are wattled bamboo or wood. Their halls and terraced belvederes have wooden flat-roofed rooms, and are coated with chunam, and covered with tiles burnt or unburnt. They are of extraordinary height, and in style like those of China. The [houses] thatched with coarse or common grass are of bricks or boards, their walls are ornamented with chunam, the floor is purified with cow dung and strewn with flowers of the season, in these matters they differ from us. But the Buddhist monasteries are of most remarkable architecture. They have a tower at each of the four corners of the quadrangle and three high halls in a tier. The rafters and roofbeams are carved with strange figures, and the doors, windows, and walls are painted in various colours. The houses of the laity are sumptuous inside and economical outside. The inner rooms and the central hall vary in their dimensions, and there is no rule for form or construction for the tiers of the terraces or the rows of high rooms. Their doors open to the east, and the throne faces east.

For seats all use corded benches. The royal family, the grandees, officials and gentry adorn their benches in different ways, but all have the same style (or form) of seat. The sovereign's dais is exceedingly wide and high, and it is dotted with small pearls. What is called the "Lion's Seat" (that is, the actual throne) is covered with fine cloth, and is mounted by a jewelled footstool. The ordinary officials according to their

fines carve the frames of their seats in different ways and adorn them with precious substances

DRESS AND PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS.

The inner clothing and outward attire of the people have no tailoring as to colour a fresh white is esteemed and motley is of no account. The men wind a strip of cloth round the waist and up to the armpits and leave the right shoulder bare. The women wear a long robe which covers both shoulders and falls down to the feet. The hair on the crown of the head is made into a coil all the rest of the hair hanging down. Some clip their mustaches or have their fantastic fashions. Garlands are worn on the head and necklaces on the body.

The names for their clothing materials are *Kiao shê ye* *kau sheya* and *mushu* *tieh* and *calico pu* *kausheya* being silk from a wild silk worm (*Chû r* (*Chu-mo* *Kelaumai*) a kind of linen, *Han* or *Kan-pu* *kaumbala* a texture of fine wool (sheep's wool or goat's hair), and *Ho li h* *hal* a texture made from the wool of a wild animal—this wool being fine and soft and easily spun and woven is prized as a material for clothing. In North India where the climate is very cold closely fitting jackets are worn somewhat like those of the Tartars (*Hu*).

The garbs of the non-Buddhists (religious) are varied and extraordinary. Some wear peacocks' tails, some adorn themselves with a necklace of skulls, some are quite naked, some cover the body with grass or boards, some pull out their hair and clip their mustaches, some mat their side hair and make a top knot coil. Their clothing is not fixed and the colour varies.

In this passage, it will be noticed, the clothing materials used by the lay people of India are arranged in four groups. The first is called by the pilgrim "Kausheya clothing and mushin and cloth" (犍舍衣及麁布等). Now *kausheya* (or *kausheya*) is silk made from the cocoon of the *Bombyx Mori*, and *tieh pu* is cotton-cloth or *tieh* and cotton cloth. It is perhaps better to regard *tieh* and *pu* as names of two materials and in another treatise we find *Kausheya*, *tieh*, and *ts'ui* (麁) grouped together.¹ This *ts'ui* was apparently a kind of coarse cotton cloth, and we find a *ts'ui la-pai* or "rough cotton" used to stuff cushions. The term *kausheya* was applied not only to

¹ *Ta fang têng ta chi chung ch* 11 (No 61 tr cir A D 400).

silk stuffs but also to mixtures of silk and linen or cotton.¹ Our pilgrim evidently makes one group of "silk clothing" and cottons. This is not to be much wondered at when we reflect that he like the other Chinese of his time and district, knew nothing of the cotton plant and the cloths derived from it. Moreover we should probably regard this description of the dress of the natives of India as derived from an earlier account.

The second kind of clothing material here mentioned is the *Kshauma* or Linen. This term also is to be regarded as denoting a class. It comprehends, we must suppose, the fabrics made from the *Kshuma* or flax, the *anā* or jute, and the *bhāṅgī* or hemp. These three plants are mentioned in Chinese translations from the Sanskrit as yielding stuffs from which clothes were made. This word *kshauma* denotes not only linen but also silk textures.

The third group is the *kambala*. This word, which denotes "woollen cloth" and 'a blanket', is here evidently used in the sense of fine woollen cloth for making clothing. Like the *kāśheya* and the *kshauma* the *kambala* clothing was allowed to the Buddhist Brethren.

The fourth kind of stuff mentioned as used for clothing material is called by Yuan chuang *Ho la li* (袈裟) There does not seem to be any known Sanskrit word with which this can be identified. As Yuan chuang spells foreign words the three characters may stand for *Ral*, a Tibetan word meaning "goat's hair", from *Ra*, a goat. This *Ho la li* or *Ral* is also probably the *Lo* (羅) or "Lo (Ra) clothes" of other Buddhist texts. In Sanskrit also we find *rallaka* which denotes a wild animal and a stuff made from its hair, and *rallala kambala* which is a fine woollen cloth.

Our pilgrim's description proceeds—

The clerical costume of the *Sha men* (*Sramanas*) is only the three robes and the *Seng hio li* and *Ni po so na*. As to the three robes the Schools adhere to different styles having broad or

¹ *Sar Vin vibhasha ch 5* (No 1135) *Seng chi lu ch 9*

narrow fringes and small or large folds. The *seng kio ki* goes over the left shoulder covers the armpits joined on the right and opening on the left side and in length reaching to below the waist. As to the *Ni po so na* since no belt is worn when it is put on it is gathered into plaits and secured by one of these the size and colour of the plaits vary in the different schools.

For the first part of this passage Julien has the following. Les *Chamens* (Gramanas) n'ont que trois sortes de vêtements savoir le *Seng I a tchi* (Sanghati) le *Seng kio ki* (Sankachhika) et le *Ni po sie na* (Nivāsana). La coupe et la façon de ces trois vêtements varient suivant les écoles. Les uns ont une bordure large ou étroite les autres ont des pans petits ou grands. Here the translator spoils the description by interpolating the words 'savoir le *Seng I a tchi* (Sanghāti)' leaving out the word 'for' and inserting 'ces' in the clause 'La coupe et la façon de ces trois vêtements'. The 'Three robes' of the Buddhist monk are quite distinct from the two articles of his dress here mentioned by name. The 'three robes' are always given as the Antariवासल, the Sanghati and the Uttarasanga. Of these we have already met with the second and third in our travellers account of Balkh and there we met also with the article of clothing called *Seng I io ki*. This last word is apparently for the original which is Sankachchika in Pali and Julien's Sanskrit Sankakshila. This is translated in a Chinese note to our text by 'covering armpits'. Professor Rhys Davids translates the Pali word by 'vest' but the description given seems to suit a rude shirt or jacket with one sleeve which was buttoned or looped on the left shoulder. One name for the vestment as worn by monks in China is *P'ien shan* (袂衫) or 'one sided jacket'.¹ The other article of monks costume mentioned by name here is the *Ni po so na* or Nivāsana. This is rendered in Chinese by *chün* (袪) an old native term denoting a 'shirt' on the lower part of

¹ Shih sh h yao lan (釋氏要覽), ch. 1 Vinaya Vol. 1 p. 272 and Vinaya Texts Vol. III p. 331, Seng chi lu L. c.

a robe of ceremony. *Nivāsana* is a common term for an under-robe or lower garment, but it is here used in its restricted sense as designating the particular kind of skirt or under robe worn by Buddhist monks. This was, according to regulation, four ells long by one and a half in width, and it reached from the waist to about three finger breadths above the ankle. As *Yuan-chuang* here tells us the Schools were distinguished by differences in the wearing of the *Nivāsana*.¹ Thus, as *I ching* tells us, the *Sarvastivadins* wore the skirt with a pair of plaits turned out on both sides of it, and the *Mahāsaṅghikas* crossed the end of the right side to the top of the left side, tucking it in to keep the skirt in its place. This skirt or *Nivāsa* had no string or girdle and it was evidently something like the Malay *Sarong* which, as Colonel *Yule* tells us, is an old Indian form of dress. This garment also is self securing, and is not in need of a belt or girdle. The two articles of dress here mentioned and described viz. the *Saṅkakṣika* and the *Nivāsana* were in addition to the Three Robes which formed originally the full clerical costume of the *bhikṣu*. They are often mentioned in the canonical books, having been allowed apparently as soon as Buddhism began to spread. The mode of wearing the *Nivāsana* and its colour and fashion caused much discussion and unpleasant feeling in the early church.

The pilgrim's description continues—

The *Kṣatriyas* and *Brahmins* are clean handed and unostentatious pure and simple in life and very frugal. The dress and ornaments of the kings and granlees are very extraordinary. Garlands and tiaras with precious stones are their head adornments, and their bodies are adorned with rings, bracelets and necklaces. Wealthy mercantile people have only bracelets. Most of the people go barefoot and shoes are rare. They stain their teeth red or black wear their hair cut even, bore their ears have long noses and large eyes, such are they in outward appearance.

¹ *Ssu f a lu ch* 19, *Nan hai-chi kuei ch* 10 11 and *Takakusu, Pin ni ru-ching ch* 8

They are pure of themselves and not from compulsion. Before every meal they must have a wash: the fragments and remains are not served up again: the food utensils are not passed on: those utensils which are of pottery or wood must be thrown away after use and those which are of gold, silver, copper or iron get another polishing. As soon as a meal is over they chew the tooth stick and make themselves clean: before they have finished ablutions they do not come into contact with each other: they always wash after urinating: they smear their bodies with scented unguents such as sandal and saffron. When the king goes to his bath there is the music of drums and stringed instruments and song: worship is performed and there are bathing and washing.

The last sentence of this passage is in Julien's version—*"Quand le roi se dispose a sortir des musiciens battent le tambour et chantent aux sons de la guitare. Avant d'offrir un sacrifice ou d'adresser des prieres (aux dieux) ils se lavent et se baignent"*. Here Julien evidently had for the first clause the B reading *chun wang chuang ts'u* meaning 'when the king is about to go out'. But in the A, C, and D texts the reading instead of *ts'u* is *yu* meaning 'to bathe', and this is evidently the correct reading. Then Julien seems to change the author's meaning by making the second clause a new sentence and introducing the word "avant". The author's meaning seems to be that when the king took his bath there was the performance of certain acts of worship.¹

WRITTEN AND SPOKEN LANGUAGE &c

The description next proceeds to tell of the writing and learning of the Hindus.

Their system of writing was invented as is known by the deva Brahma who at the beginning instituted as patterns forty-seven [written] words. These were combined and applied as objects arose and circumstances occurred: ramifying like streams they spread far and wide becoming modified a little by place and people. In language speaking generally they have not varied from the original source: but the people of "Mid India" are

¹ The text is—君王將出 or 越鼓多鼓歌歌祀祀開詞
計計盟記

preeminently explicit and correct in speech their expressions being harmonious and elegant like those of the devas and their intonation clear and distinct serving as rule and pattern for others. The people of neighbouring territories and foreign countries repeating errors until these became the norm and emulous for vulgarities, have lost the pure style.

The statement here made to the effect that the Sanskrit alphabet was invented by the god Brahmā is repeated in several other books by Buddhist writers. Some tell us that Brahmā was once a rājā on earth, and that he then invented an alphabet of 72 letters called the "Kharu writing" (佉樓書). Disgusted with the bad treatment given to these letters he proceeded to swallow them all, but two, *a* and *au* escaped from his mouth and remained among men¹. But we are also told that Brahma invented the Brahma writing first and that afterwards Kharoshtha produced the script which bears his name². Another account represents the Brahman writing (or Devanagari) to have been the invention of a wise (kovidā) Brahmin and the Kharu writing to have been the work of a stupid (kharu) rishi. This Kharu writing is that mentioned in the Lalitavistara and other books under the name Kharoshtha (or Kharostā). This word is translated by "Ass ear", and is the name of an ancient rishi who was a great astronomer and astrologist. In some Buddhist treatises we find the invention of letters ascribed to the Buddha and in some Siva, as in Indian tradition is credited with the first teaching of spelling and writing³. The "forty seven words" of our passage are the twelve symbols which represent the ten vowels and anusvara and visarga, and the thirty five consonants, and so constitute the alphabet. The letters admit of endless combinations to make words as objects require names and circumstances need expression. Some authors give the number of the letters in the

¹ Pai lun su (百論疏)

² Liu shu hao (六書略) ch. 9

³ See Ta pan nie pan ching ch. 8 (No. 113), Si tan san mi chao (毘曇三密鈔), ch. 1, Si tan tsang ch. 1, Si tan tzu chi (字記)

Sanskrit alphabet as less, and others as more, than the number here given, but this is generally regarded as the correct number. With the statements here made by Yuan chuang about the Sanskrit alphabet and language we may compare the more detailed account given in the third *chuan* of the *Life* ¹

It is evident that Yuan-chuang, like other non Indian Buddhists, had been taught to regard the spoken and written language of "Mid-India" as at once the parent and the standard of all the dialects of "North India". These latter had departed a little from the correct form in their writing some of them, as in Gandhara having written alphabets so unlike the parent one that they had special names. In oral speech the border lands and outlying regions generally had come to differ much from the people of "Mid-India". They had lost the rich purity of the standard language, and had persisted in erroneous forms of expression until these had come to be taught as the rule.

The description continues—

As to their archives and records there are separate custodians of these. The official annals and state papers are called collectively *ni lo-pi tu* (or *ch'a*), in these good and bad are recorded and instances of public calamity and good fortune are set forth in detail.

The *Ni-lo-pi tu* of this passage has been rightly restored by Julien as *Nilapita*, and the Chinese annotator tells us the word means "Dark-blue store". We find the word *Nilapita* in our Sanskrit dictionaries, but the P. W. gives only one illustration of its use, and that is the passage before us.

Proceeding to the education and learning of the people of India our author writes—

In beginning the education of their children and winning them on to progress they follow the 'Twelve Chapters'. When the children are seven years of age the great treatises of the Five

¹ Julien I, p 165, cf Alberuni Vol 1 p 170, Buhler's *Ind Palæographie* p^s. 1 and 19 to 30

Sciences are gradually communicated to them. The first science is Grammar which teaches and explains words and classifies their distinctions. The second is that of the skilled professions [concerned with] the principles of the mechanical arts, the dual processes and astrology. The third is the science of medicine [embracing] exorcising charms, medicine, the use of the stone, the needle, moxa. The fourth is the science of reasoning by which the orthodox and heterodox are ascertained and the true and false are thoroughly sought out. The fifth is the science of the Internal which investigates and teaches the five degrees of religious attainments (lit. the "five vehicles") and the subtle doctrine of karma.

The "Twelve Chapters" of this passage is in the original *Shi-êrh chang* (十二章) and Julien translates this by "un livre en douze sections". In a note to this rendering he translates a short passage from a well-known Buddhist Dictionary about a book called the "*Siddham-chang*". This is doubtless the sort of work to which the pilgrim refers as the first book which the children of India learned. The name is made up of *Siddham* which means, we are told, "Perfection" or "May good fortune be attained", and *chang* the Chinese word for a "section" or "chapter". But Julien makes the whole stand for a Sanskrit compound *Siddharastu*, a term apparently known only from his use of it. From a passage in I-ching's "*Nan hai ch'i-kuei*" and from other works we learn that the *Siddham-chang* was the name of a child's primer ABC, the first chapter of which was headed by the word *siddham*¹. This word forms an "auspicious invocation", and the Buddhists used it alone or with "*Namo Sarvajñāya*, "Praise to the omniscient [Buddha]" prefixed, at the beginning of their primers. They used it in a similar way to head such documents as deeds of gift to religious establishments. In these places Bühler took the word to mean "Success", i. e. may there be success, an interpretation which agrees with the accepted Chinese rendering. But Fleet thinks that *siddham* in these places is to be understood as meaning "Perfection has been attained by Buddha", an inter-

¹ *Nan hai ch'i kuei*, ch. 34, *Si tan san mi ch'ao*, l. c.

pretation which does not seem to be so good¹ Instead of siddham the non-Buddhist teachers in India placed "siddhir astu" meaning "May there be success (or accomplishment)" at the head of their ABCs Thus these books came to be called Siddham or Siddhir-astu, the former being the name by which they became known to the Chinese There are many varieties of them and the number of chapters or sections ranges from nine to eighteen, the latter being the number in the work which may be regarded as the standard one in China This is the *Si tan tzu chi* (悉曇字記) by the monk Chih kuang (智廣) of the Tang period taken from the Siddham of Prajnabodhi of South India A Siddham gives the Sanskrit alphabet, beginning with the vowels and proceeding in the order in which the letters are given in our Sanskrit grammars then the combinations made by single consonants and vowels, and then those made by two or more consonants with a vowel In some of the Siddhams made for Chinese use we are told that this word denotes "the alphabet" while in others we are told that it is a designation for the twelve so called vowels but the statements are not borne out by any authority, and are evidently not correct It may be interesting however, in connection with subject to quote a statement from Alberuni He relates—"The most generally known alphabet is called Siddha matrika, which is by some considered as originating from Kashmīr for the people of Kashmīr use it But it is also used in Varanasi This town and Kashmīr are the high schools of Hindu science The same writing is used in Madhyadesa, i e the middle country, the country all around Kanauj which is also called Aryavarta" According to Iching a child began his primer when he was six years of age and learned it within six months

After mastering the Siddham the Indian child, accord-

¹ Buhler in Ind Ant. Vol x p 273, Fleet in Corp Insc Ind. Vol iii p 25

² Alberuni Vol i, p 173

ing to Yuan chuang, was introduced to the "great śāstras of the Five Sciences (*Wu-ming-ta lun* 五明大論). The word *ming* of this phrase is often used to translate the Sanskrit word *vidya* but a five-fold classification of *vidya* does not seem to be known to Indian literature. We find, however, our pilgrim's list in certain Chinese translations of Buddhist books and the "sciences" are there acquired by aspiring Bodhisattvas¹. They are called the "Five Science places" or the "Five Science śāstras". In his translation of the present passage Juhen has treated the name of each *ming* as the name of a treatise. This is evidently a mistake, and the context shews that *ming* here denotes a *department of knowledge*, and that the *Wu-ming* named are the literatures of five categories of learning and speculation. Yuan-chuang properly places at the head the *Shêng ming* or "Science of Sounds", i. e. Grammar. Juhen agrees with I-chung in giving Śabdavidyā as the original for this term. But Śabdavidyā was apparently the Buddhist name for Grammar which by the people of India generally was called Vyākaraṇa. It is this latter word also which Yuan-chuang elsewhere uses as the original for *Shêng ming*. The next group is called *Chiao* or in some texts *Kung-chiao* (工巧) *ming*, the "Science of the Arts and Crafts". Juhen retranslates the Chinese name by Śilpasthānavidyā, which seems to be rather the original for the "Arts place Science" of the sutra. The third group is the *I-fang-ming*, "Healing-prescriptions Science", that is Medical science in all its branches. Juhen gives as the Sanskrit original for the Chinese name *Chikitsāvidyā* or *Science of Medicine*, but this seems to be only a conjecture. The fourth group in our passage is the *Yin* (因) *ming* or the Science of Reasoning. Juhen restores the Sanskrit equivalent as *Hetuvidyā* which, like *Yin ming*, means literally "Science of causation". But *Yin-ming* is the technical term used to translate the

* 1. Fan-wang-ching, *ch* 2, Glossary, Yoga-shih ti lun, *ch* 38 (No 1170), Pu sa ti chih ching, *ch* 3 (No 1086 tr cir A D 415)

Nyaya or Logic of Indian writers, and Julien learned afterwards that it was Nyāya which was the original for *Yin ming*. The fifth is the *Nei(fǔ) ming* or "Internal Science", Julien translates 'la science des choses intérieures' and gives as the Sanskrit original *Adhyātma-vidyā*. This word *adhyātma* means (1) *the highest spirit* and (2) *belonging to oneself*. In Kapila's system *adhyātma* means *self-caused* (in Chinese *i-nei* 依 內) and it is opposed to that which is due to external influences. But in the present passage, as the context shews, and as we learn from other authorities, the *nei ming* or Inner science is Buddhism. The son of Buddhist parents went through a course of secular instruction like other boys, and he also studied the books of his religion including the metaphysical and argumentative treatises of the great Doctors of Abhidharma. In these he learned all about the Five degrees or "Five Vehicles, the fivefold gradation of moral beings. These "vehicles" or progressive stages are given as lay believer (or "inferior degree"), ordained disciple, Pratyeka Buddha, Bodhisattva, Buddha. They are also said to be Men, Devas, ordained disciples, Pratyeka Buddhas, and Bodhisattvas, and there is further difference of opinion as to the classes of beings which form the successive groups¹. In the Buddhist sastras moreover the student found the doctrine of karma stated, defended, and illustrated with a subtlety of intellect and boldness of imagination almost matchless. All the five groups of learning here enumerated were apparently comprised in the training of an Indian Buddhist, and no one could be a leader in the church, or an authority on dogma, who did not shew himself a proficient in these departments of learning. We are told of Kumārajīva that he studied the sastras of the Five sciences, and of Gunabhadra it is recorded that in his youth he learned all the sastras of the Five sciences, astronomy, arithmetic, medicine, exor-

¹ Shih-chiao-fa-shu, ch. 1, Ta-ming-⁶an-tsang-fa-shu, ch. 22 (No 1621)

cisms The religious training in the Tripitaka was according to some authorities a separate affair while others treat it as a part of the "Inner Science"

Our author's description proceeds

The Brahmins learn the four Veda treatises The first called *Shou* (壽) "Longevity (the Ayur Veda) tells of nourishing life and keeping the constitution in order the second called *Tzu* (祔) "Worship (the Yajur Veda) tells of the making of offerings and supplications the third called *Ping* (平) "Making even (the Sāma Veda) describes ceremonial etiquette divination and military tactics the fourth called *Shu* (術) or Arts (the Atharva Veda) tells us of the various skilled arts exorcisms medicine The teacher must have a wide thorough and minute knowledge of these with an exhaustive comprehension of all that is abstruse in them

The words here rendered 'the four Veda treatises' are in the original *'ssu fei te lun* (四吠陀論) Julien translates them simply by "les quatre Vedas" and Beal by "the four Vēda Sūtras" Neither of the translators attempts to explain why the first Veda is here not the Rig but the Ayur The latter term denotes *life* or *longevity* as Yuan chuang translates and there is an Ayur Veda But this is only a supplement or appendix to the Atharva Veda and denotes rather the science of medicine than any particular treatise It is reckoned as Veda we learn because its teachings have been found by experience to be wise and beneficial Yuan chuang knew that the Rig was the first the original Veda yet he does not even mention it here His descriptions of the other Vedas also are not good and it is plain that he knew very little about them and the great literature to which they had given rise The Sāma Veda for example with its Brahmanas and Sūtras has nothing to do with the subjects which Yuan chuang assigns to it and it is concerned only with the worship of Indra and Agni and the Soma When writing this passage Yuan chuang may have had in view only those Vedic works which were in writing and were known to or owned by the Brethren in 'North India' Some of these Buddhists were converted Brahmins and

it was perhaps by some of them, as has been suggested, that the Vedas were first reduced to writing. The Rig-veda itself still existed only in the memories of the Brahmins, and it was taught entirely by oral communication, but there were commentaries and other Vedic treatises in writing. Moreover we are probably justified in treating the word "Veda" in our text as denoting a group or collection of treatises, each Veda being a title under which several departments of learning were classed. The translators into Chinese sometimes render Veda like vidya by *ming* (明) which simply means *knowledge, science, intelligence*, as with the Brahmins the *Trayi-vidya* or "threefold Science" denotes the Rig, Yajur, and Sāma Vedas. The reader also will observe that Yuan chuang here does not use the words *books, treatises* with the terms for Ayur, Yajur, Sama, Atharva.

Our author proceeds to sketch the Brahmin teacher's way of educating his disciples.

These teachers explain the general meaning [to their disciples] and teach them the minutiae, they rouse them to activity and skilfully win them to progress, they instruct the inert and sharpen the dull. When disciples, intelligent and acute are addicted to idle shirking, the teachers doggedly persevere repeating instruction¹ until their training is finished. When the disciples are thirty years old, their minds being settled and their education finished, they go into office, and the first thing they do then is to reward the kindness of their teachers.

We have next some account of a kind of men peculiar to India and long famous in the world. Our author writes—

There are men who, far seen in antique lore and fond of the refinements of learning, "are content in seclusion", leading lives of continence. These come and go (lit sink and float) outside of the world, and promenade through life away from human affairs. Though they are not moved by honour or reproach,

¹ The original for "doggedly persevere repeating instruction is 拘繫反開. This is the reading of the D text but instead of *fan-k'ai* the Ming edition has 及關 and Juhen translates the four words "ils les attachent et les tiennent enfermes".

their fame is far spread. The rulers treating them with ceremony and respect cannot make them come to court. Now as the State holds men of learning and genius in esteem, and the people respect those who have high intelligence, the honours and praises of such men are conspicuously abundant, and the attentions private and official paid to them are very considerable. Hence men can force themselves to a thorough acquisition of knowledge. Forgetting fatigue they "expatiate in the arts and sciences", seeking for wisdom while "relying on perfect virtue" they "count not 1000 *li* a long journey". Though their family be in affluent circumstances, such men make up their minds to be like the vagrants, and get their food by begging as they go about. With them there is honour in knowing truth (in having wisdom), and there is no disgrace in being destitute. As to those who lead dissipated idle lives, luxurious in food and extravagant in dress, as such men have no moral excellences and are without accomplishments, shame and disgrace come on them and their ill repute is spread abroad.¹

BUDDHISM

Our author passes on to make a few general observations about the internal condition of Buddhism as he heard about it and found it in India. His statements on the subject are meagre and condensed to a fault, and the precise meaning in some cases has perhaps not yet been ascertained. The whole passage should be regarded as forming a separate section, and should not be divided as it has been by the translators. For the present the in-

¹ The 'content in seclusion' of this passage is in the Chinese *fei tun* (肥遁) which is the *fei tun* (肥遁) of the commentary to the 33rd Diagram of the Yih Ching. The phrase means "to be comfortable and happy in a life of retirement", to be content and cheerful in a voluntary seclusion, in a life of final withdrawal from the contact of bad men in the hurly burly of an official career.

For the words 'seeking for wisdom while relying on perfect virtue' the original is *fang tao yi jen* (訪道依仁). The phrase *yi jen*, "depending on (or following) benevolence" is a quotation from the Lun-yu, so also is the expression for "expatiate in the arts and sciences", then "count not 1000 *li* a long journey" is from the first chapter of Mencius, and 'acquired accomplishments' is for the *shih-hsi* (時習) or "constant practise" of the first chapter of the Lun-yu.

formation which it gives may be roughly interpreted to the following effect—

As the religious system of Jula is apprehended by people according to their kind, and as it is long since the time of the Holy One, Buddhism now is pure or diluted according to the spiritual insight and mental capacity of its adherents. The tenets of the Schools keep these isolated, and controversy runs high, heresies on special doctrines lead many ways to the same end. Each of the Eighteen Schools claims to have intellectual superiority, and the tenets (or practises) of the Great and the Small Systems (lit. Vehicles) differ widely. They have sitting in silent reverie, the walking to and fro and the standing still, Samadhi and Prajna are far apart and many are the noisy discussions. Wherever there is a community of Brethren it makes [its own] rules of gradation. The Brother who expounds orally one treatise (or class of scripture) in the Buddhist Canon, whether Vinaya, Abhidharma or Sutra is exempted from serving under the Prior, he who expounds two is invested with the outfit of a Superior, he who expounds three has Brethren deputed to assist him, he who expounds four has lay servants assigned to him, he who expounds five rides an elephant, he who expounds six rides an elephant and has a surrounding retinue. Where the spiritual attainments are high, the distinctions conferred are extraordinary.

The Brethren are often assembled for discussion to test intellectual capacity and bring moral character into prominent distinction, to reject the worthless and advance the intelligent. Those who bring forward (or according to some texts, estimate aright) fine points in philosophy, and give subtle principles their proper place, who are ornate in diction and acute in refined distinctions, ride richly caparisoned elephants preceded and followed by a host of attendants. But as for those to whom religious teaching has been offered in vain, who have been defeated in discussion, who are deficient in doctrine and redundant in speech, perverting the sense while keeping the language, the faces of such are promptly daubed with red and white clay, their bodies are covered with dirt, and they are driven out to the wilds or thrown into the ditches. As the moral are marked off from the amoral so the eminent (the wise) and the stupid have outward signs of distinction. A man knowing to delight in wisdom, at home diligently intent on learning, may be monk or layman as he pleases.

For offences against the Vinaya the Community of Brethren has a gradation of penalties. If the offence is slight a reprimand is ordered. For an offence next above this in gravity there is

added a cessation of oral intercourse with the Brethren. When the offence is serious the punishment is that the community will not live with the offender, and this involves expulsion and excommunication. Expelled from a Community, the monk has no home, he then becomes a miserable vagrant, or he returns to his first estate.

This passage contains several phrases and expressions which may seem to require some comment or explanation. Thus in the first sentence we are told that Buddha's "religious system is apprehended by people according to their kind (如來理孝隨類得解)", that is, every one understands Buddha's teaching according to his individual nature and capacity. The statement is derived from the canonical Scriptures in which we are told that the Buddha preached in one language, but that all kinds of creatures understood him in their own ways. He spoke, we are told, the "Aryan language" but Chinese, and Yavans, and the peoples of Bactria and Bokhara, heard him as speaking in their own tongues. Moreover each man in a congregation which the Buddha addressed heard his own besetting sin reproved, and the same words called the unchaste to chastity and the avaricious to liberality.¹ This may have been right, and attended with only good consequences while the Buddha was bodily present among men, teaching and preaching and giving rules and precepts. But at Yuan-chuang's time a long period had elapsed since the decease of the Buddha. His teachings had been collected, committed to writing, transmitted and preserved with very unequal faithfulness. Great differences of opinion also had arisen as to whether certain doctrines were or were not the Buddha's teaching. Hence in Yuan-chuang's time the orthodox religion as professed in India was genuine or adulterated according to the moral and intellectual characters of its professed adherents. Some held to what they were taught to believe was the original Canon settled by the first Council. Others doubted and

¹ Abhi ta-vibb-lun ch 79, Hua-yen-yi-shêng-chiao &c, ch 1 (No 1591)

argued, wrested Scripture from its proper meaning to suit their personal views, and lightly admitted spurious texts to have authority

We next have mention of the Eighteen *Pu* or Schools which had arisen in Buddhism and of their rivalry. These Schools were famous in the history of Buddhism, and various accounts are given of their origin and growth. We know that the first split in the Church after the Buddha's death led to the formation of the two great Schools of the *Sthaviras* and *Mahasanghikas*. The former in the course of time yielded eleven, and the latter seven Schools, and so there were actually Twenty Schools, but the total number is generally given in the books as Eighteen. Each of these Schools became famous for the propagation and defence of some peculiar doctrine. In Professor Rhys Davids's articles on the Buddhist sects¹ there is an excellent summary of what we know of these Eighteen Schools, with references to other authorities.

Then we have mention of another famous division in the Buddhist Church viz the Great and Small Vehicles. Yuan chuang tells us that "the tenets (or practises) of the Great and the Small Vehicles differ widely." *Ta-hsiao-êrh-shêng-chu-chih-ch'u pie* (大小二乘居或舉止區別). Julien translates—"Les partisans du *grand* et du *petit Véhicule* forment deux classes à part", but this does not seem to give the author's meaning. The term *chu chih* lit. *resting* or *sojourning* denotes here *tenets*, or *outward observances* or *practises*, and *ch'u pie* means *very unlike* or *generically different*. Yuan chuang does not state that the adherents of the two systems formed two classes apart; he knew that in some places they even lived together in one monastery. But he tells us that the tenets of the two Systems, their ways of belief and conduct were far apart. It is a pity that the word *Vehicle* has come to be generally used as the rendering for the Sanskrit *Yana* in the words *Mahayana* and *Hinayana*. We should often

¹ Journal of the Royal Asiatic Soc. 1891 and 1892

substitute for it some term like Creed or System, and Hinayana should be the Primitive and Mahayana the Developed System. As is well known, it was the adherents of the latter who gave the name "Small Vehicle" to the creed from which their own grew. Their doctrines and religious observances came to differ very widely from those of the early system. The Mahayanists had a more expansive Creed, a different standard of religious perfection, and a more elaborate cult than the Hinayanists. As to particular tenets, they differed very much from the early Buddhists in such matters as opinions about arhats and Bodhisattvas, their views of the relation of the Buddha to mankind, of the efficacy of prayer and worship and of the elasticity of the Canon. Our author illustrates his statement as to differences in the Great and Little Systems by one or two examples, at least such is the general opinion as to the passage which follows. In the rendering here given it reads—They have sitting in silent reverie, the walking to and fro and the standing still. Samadhi and Prajna are far apart, and many are the noisy discussions'. Julien's translation which seems to be the result of a serious misconstruction of the passage is—*"Les uns meditent en silence, et soit en marchant, soit en repos tiennent leur esprit immobile et font abstraction du monde, les autres different tout à fait de ceux ci par leurs disputes orageuses"*¹. The text given below, plainly does not admit of this rendering which does great violence to meaning and construction. In this passage *ting*, or "absorbed meditation" (Samadhi), seems to be declared to be far apart from *prajna hui* or 'transcendental wisdom. But samadhi although known to early Buddhism, is characteristic of Mahayanism and is often found, as here, with *hui*, which is strictly Mahayanist. We read of a great controversy which was carried on between two Hinayana Schools as to the relative merits of samadhi

* The text is—有宴默也惟經行住立定慧各隔道
爭其殊

and *prajñā*. But we should perhaps understand our author here as stating that the Hinayanist practices of quiet thought, walking up and down, and standing still were far removed from the Samadhi and Prajna of the Mahayanists.

For the sentence—'Wherever there is a community of Brethren it makes rules of gradation' the original is 隨其衆居各制科防 and Julien translates—"Suivant le lieu qu'ils habitent, on leur a fait un code de règlements et de defenses d'une nature speciale" This is not in accordance with Buddhism, and it is not a fair rendering of the author's words. These mean that each community of Brethren had its own hierarchy promoted according to a recognized system. The system of promotion Yuan chuang explains, was briefly this—the Brethren in any establishment were advanced according to their ability to expound and teach the canonical treatises of the Vinaya Abhidharma, or Sutras. In the D text the original is "without distinguishing Vinaya, Abhidharma, Sutra, in Buddha's canon—(無云律令經是佛經), but the B text has the words *chu fan* (起凡) after *Fo chung* and C adds the word *kua* (挂) after *fan*. Julien having the reading of the B text translates—"Les règles de la discipline (Vinaya), les Traités philosophiques (Śāstras) les textes sacrés (Sutras), les Prédications (Vyākaraṇas) &c sont tous également des livres du Buddha". He tells us in a note how he gets "les Prédications", viz by altering the 起 of the text to 記. This emendation is quite untenable and unnecessary, as is also the insertion of "&c" by the translator. There is no classification of the Buddhist Scriptures which contains the four heads of division given in Julien's translation. All the canon is contained in the Three Baskets (or Stores) Vinaya Sutra and Abhidharma, and the *Chi* (記) or "les Prédications" constitute one of the subdivisions of the sutra¹. In the passage under consideration the words

¹ But in the passage quoted by Julien and in other places *ching* or *sūtra* is given as one of the classes of Scripture along with the *Shou chi* or Predictions, the *ching* is the first of the twelve classes of scriptures the *Chi* (or *Shou chi*) being also one of the twelve

Chü fan are not wanted, they were probably inserted to satisfy the demands of style

The first step in promotion, Yuan chuang relates, was that a Brother who could teach one treatise (or class of writings) in the Canon "was exempted from serving under the Prior" For the words within inverted commas the original is—*Nai men sêng chü shih* (乃免僧知事), and Julien translates—'est dispense des devoirs de religieux et dirige les affaires du couvent' This faulty interpretation, it will be seen, puts the disciple of one talent above the disciples of two or more talents The *Sêng-chü shih* or Karmadāna in a Buddhist monastery had control of its secular affairs, and the common monks were under his orders for all kinds of menial work. When a Brother proved himself well versed in one subject or department of the canon, and skilled in eloquent exposition of the same, he was, as a first step in advancement, exempted from performing the ordinary work of the establishment. This exemption was granted also in monasteries to which the learned Brother went as a guest There is an Abhidharma treatise in which we find an illustration of our text A stranger monk arrives in a monastery and is treated as a guest at first Afterwards the Prior tells him that according to his seniority he is to take part in the daily routine of the establishment But the guest said—No I am not to work, I am a Ph D, a Lun shih, and his claim to be exempted was allowed¹

For the words here rendered by 'But as for those to whom religious teaching has been offered in vain' the original is 至乃義門此門 Julien wrongly connecting these words with what precedes translates "A son arrivee il passe sous des portes triomphales" It will be readily admitted that *yi men* cannot be translated "triumphal gates" and that *hsü p'ü* cannot possibly be rendered by "il passe sous" The term *yi men*, lit 'door of meaning' is used in the senses of *article of creed, essential doctrine,*

¹ Sar Vin Ma te ka ch 6 (No 1134), Abhi ta vib lun ch 118

course of instruction. In ordinary Chinese literature the term is not unknown and it is an honourable epithet or distinction. A *yi-mên* is an *unselfish* or *public spiritual clan*, as a family which keeps together for a long time, five or six generations, living and messing on the same premises. But here *yi-mên* has a Buddhistic use and means "cause of religious instruction". Then *hsu-p'i* is "vainly open", and the clause means "as for those to whom religious teaching has been offered to no purpose". It introduces the words which follow, telling the dreadful fate of the man who does not learn, and yet pretends to be wise.

THE CASTES OF INDIA

Our author passes on to give a few particulars about the division of the people of India into castes. His statements may be loosely rendered as follows—

There are four orders of hereditary clan distinctions. The first is that of the Brahmins or "purely living", these keep their principles and live continently, strictly observing ceremonial purity. The second order is that of the Kshatriyas, the race of kings, this order has held sovereignty for many generations, and its aims are benevolence and mercy. The third order is that of the Vaisyas or class of traders who barter commodities and pursue gain far and near. The fourth class is that of the Sudras or agriculturists, these toil at cultivating the soil and are industrious at sowing and reaping. These four castes form classes of various degrees of ceremonial purity. The members of a caste marry within the caste, the great and the obscure keeping apart. Relations whether by the father's or the mother's side do not intermarry, and a woman never contracts a second marriage. There are also the mixed castes, numerous clans formed by groups of people according to their kinds, and these cannot be described.

It will be seen from this passage that Yüan-chuang, like other Chinese writers on India, understood the term *Brahman* as meaning those who had *brahman* in the sense of a *chaste continent habit of life*. The Kshatriyas were the hereditary rulers, and as such their minds were to be bent on benevolence and mercy. This is in accordance

with Manu who lays it down that the king should be a protector to his people¹ Yuan chuang here puts the castes in the order given in brahmin books, but in the Buddhist scriptures the Kshatriyas are usually placed above the Brāhmins. The phrase which he applies to the Vaiśyas, whom he calls the trading caste, viz "they barter what they have not" is one of some interest. The words are *mao-ch'ien-yu-uu* (貿遷有無), and they are to be found in the Shu-ching with the substitution of 貿 for 懋, the two characters having the same sound but very different meanings². Our pilgrim, it will be noticed, makes the Śūdras to be farmers. But in Manu, and in some Buddhist works, the Vaiśyas are farmers, and the business of the Śūdras is to serve the three castes above them³.

The sentence here rendered "The members of a caste marry within the caste, the great and the obscure keeping apart" is in the original *hun-chu tung ch'in-fei fu-yi-lu* (婚娶通親飛伏異路), lit "marriages go through the kindred, flying and prostrate different ways". Julien translates the words—"Quand les hommes ou les femmes se marient, ils prennent un rang élevé ou restent dans une condition obscure, suivant la différence de leur origine". This rendering seems to be absurd and it does violence to the text leaving out the two words *tung ch'in* and mistranslating *yi lu*. What our author states seems to be clear and simple. Marriages take place within a caste, and a Vaiśya man, for example, may marry any Vaiśya maid. And he will marry no other. To Yuan chuang a caste was a *gens* or a clan denoted by one surname (姓) and all who belonged to the *gens* were kindred, they were of one *yati*. So members of the caste might intermarry provided they were not already related by marriage. But though a man might espouse any maid of his caste, the rich and great married among themselves, and the poor

¹ Ch. I. 89 et al.

² L. C. C. Vol. III, p. 78, Shu Ching ch. 2.

³ Ch'ing shih lun, ch. 7 (No. 1274), Manu I, 91.

and obscure kept to themselves in their marriages. The words *fei*, "flying" and *fu* "prostrate", used for *prosperous* and *obscure* have a reference to the first chapter of the Yih-chung. With what Yuan-chuang tells us here we may compare Manu who lays down the law that "a father ought to give his daughter in marriage to a distinguished young man of an agreeable exterior and of the same class", and of the lady he says—"let her choose a husband of the same rank as herself"¹

The "mixed castes (*tsa-hsing* 雜姓)" are properly not "castes", but guilds and groups of low craftsmen and workmen. These include weavers shoemakers, hunters, fishermen, and also water-carriers and scavengers. Alberuni's account of these and his description of the four castes may be used as a commentary to the short account given by our pilgrim²

THE ARMY

We have next a short notice of the army of India beginning with its head, the Sovereign. Of the latter Yuan-chuang states according to Julien's rendering—"La serie des rois ne se compose que de Kchatriyas, *qui, dans l'origine, se sont élevés au pouvoir par l'usurpation du trône et le meurtre du souverain. Quoiqu'ils sont issus de familles étrangères, leur nom est prononcé avec respect*". The italics are mine and they indicate interpolations, unnecessary and unvarnished, made by the translator, who seems to have forgotten the passage he had just translated. What our author states is to this effect—

The sovereignty for many successive generations has been exercised only by Kshatriyas. rebellion and regicide have occasionally arisen, other castes assuming the distinction

that is, calling themselves kings. The sovereign *de jure* Yuan chuang thought, was always of the Kshatriya caste, and it was that caste alone which could lawfully produce

¹ Manu IX, 88

² Alberuni, ch IX

a king, but there were instances of men of other castes, Śūdras for example, raising themselves to the throne

Our author proceeds.

The National Guard (lit warriors) are heroes of choice valour, and, as the profession is hereditary, they become adepts in military tactics. In peace they guard the sovereign's residence, and in war they become the intrepid vanguard.

The army is composed of Foot, Horse, Chariot, and Elephant soldiers. The war elephant is covered with coat of mail, and his tusks are provided with sharp barbs. On him rides the Commander in chief, who has a soldier on each side to manage the elephant. The chariot in which an officer sits is drawn by four horses whilst infantry guard it on both sides. The infantry go lightly into action and are choice men of valour, they bear a large shield and carry a long spear, some are armed with a sword or sabre and dash to the front of the advancing line of battle. They are perfect experts with all the implements of war such as spear, shield, bow and arrow, sword, sabre &c having been drilled in them for generations¹.

SOCIAL AND LEGAL MATTERS

Our pilgrim next sums up the character of the Indian people.

They are of hasty and irresolute temperaments, but of pure moral principles. They will not take anything wrongfully, and they yield more than fairness requires. They fear the retribution for sins in other lives, and make light of what conduct produces in this life. They do not practise deceit and they keep their sworn obligations.

He then describes the judicial processes and modes of punishment.

As the government is honestly administered and the people live together on good terms the criminal class is small. The statute law is sometimes violated and plots made against the sovereign,

¹ For 'They are perfect experts with all the implements of war' the original is 凡諸戎器莫不鋒銳, and Julien translates "Toutes leurs armes de guerre sont piquantes ou tranchantes". But this is manifestly wrong and a little reflection should have shewn Julien that shields and slings, two of the *armes de guerre*, are not *piquantes* or *tranchantes*. On p 77 of this volume of the *Memoires* Julien translates *fêng jui* by "la superiorite"

when the crime is brought to light the offender is imprisoned for life, he does not suffer any corporal punishment, but alive and dead he is not treated as member of the community (lit. as a man) For offences against social morality and disloyal and unfilial conduct the punishment is to cut off the nose, or an ear, or a hand or a foot, or to banish the offender to another country or into the wilderness. Other offences can be atoned for by a money payment.

The narrative proceeds to describe the four ordeals by which the innocence or guilt of an accused person is determined.

These are by water, by fire by weighing and by poison. In the water ordeal the accused is put in one sack and a stone in another then the two sacks are connected and thrown into a deep stream. If the sack containing the stone floats, and the other sinks the man's guilt is proven. The fire ordeal requires the accused to kneel and tread on hot iron, to take it in his hand and lick it, if he is innocent he is not hurt but he is burnt if he is guilty. In the weighing ordeal the accused is weighed against a stone, and if the latter is the lighter the charge is false if otherwise it is true. The poison ordeal requires that the right hind leg of a ram be cut off, and according to the portion assigned to the accused to eat, poisons are put into the leg, and if the man is innocent he survives, and if not the poison takes effect.

Julien takes a very different meaning out of the text for the last sentence. He understood the author to state that the poison ordeal consisted in placing in the incised thigh of a ram "*une portion des aliments que mange le prevenu*", poisons having been previously spread over the "portion", and if the ram then died the accused was guilty, and if the poison did not work he was innocent. But this cannot be regarded as the meaning of the text (which is not, however, very clearly expressed). Our author's account of these trials by ordeal in India differs both as to the actual ordeals, and the mode of procedure with them, from the descriptions to be found in other works. Manu, for example, does not give either the weighing or the poison ordeal, but these are mentioned by other authorities.¹

¹ Manu VIII, 114, Alberuni Vol. II, p. 159

• ACTS OF SALUTATION AND REVERENCE

Our author next tells us about the ways of shewing respect and doing homage among the people of India. He relates—

There are nine degrees in the etiquette of shewing respect. These are (1) greeting with a kind enquiry (2) reverently bowing the head (3) raising the hands to the head with an inclination of the body (4) bowing with the hands folded on the breast, (5) bending a knee (6) kneeling with both knees (lit kneeling long) (7) going down on the ground on hands and knees (8) bowing down with knees elbows and forehead to the ground (9) prostrating oneself on the earth. The performance of all these nine from the lowest to the highest is only one act of reverence. To kneel and praise the excellences [of the object] is said to be the perfection of reverence. If [the person doing homage] is at a distance he bows to the ground with folded hands; if near he kisses (lit licks) the foot and rubs the ankle (say of the king). All who are delivering messages or receiving orders tuck up their clothes and kneel down. The exalted person of distinction who receives the reverence is sure to have a kind answer and he strokes the head or pats the back [of the person paying respect] giving him good words of advice to shew the sincerity of his affection. Buddhist monks receiving the courtesies of respect only bestow a good wish. Kneeling is not the only way of doing worship. Many circumambulate any object of reverential service making one circuit or three circuits or as many as they wish if they have a special request in mind.

Our author's statement here that the nine degrees of showing respect enumerated by him made one act of worship or reverence does not appear in Julien's translation. The original is *fan ssu chiu teng chu uei yi pai* (凡斯九等極惟一拜) and Julien connecting this with the words which follow renders the whole thus—"Là plus grande de ces démonstrations de respect consiste à s'agenouiller devant quelqu'un après l'avoir salué une fois et à exalter ses vertues." This sentence cannot possibly be regarded as a translation of the text which Julien evidently did not understand. According to Yuan chuang's statement there were nine degrees of showing respect but to go through all these constituted only one service of worship.

or reverence. Perhaps no one of the nine was ever performed alone as an act of respect, and we often find in Buddhist literature four or five actions performed to make one service of reverence.¹ But we may doubt whether the whole nine acts were often gone through as one act of worship. The Buddhist Brother however, spoke of performing the *ch'u pai* or 'nine reverences' to his abbot or other senior in religion. This phrase is found in popular literature, e.g. in the *Shui hu chuan* and it is apparently sometimes used like our "your obedient humble servant." Although Yuan chuang does not state so expressly, yet his language seems to indicate that the reference in this passage is to the reverence or worship paid to kings, great Brahmins, and the Buddha. It will be noticed that he does not make any mention of the signs of respect to a superior shewn by taking off one's shoes, or by uncovering the right shoulder.

SICKNESS AND DEATH

We have next a few particulars as to the ways in which the people of India treat their sick and dead. Our author tells us—

Every one who is attacked by sickness has his food cut off for seven days. In this interval the patient often recovers but if he cannot regain his health he takes medicine. Their medicines are of various kinds each kind having a specific name. Their doctors differ in medical skill and in prognostication.

At the obsequies for a departed one [the relatives] wail and weep rending their clothes and tearing out their hair striking their brows and beating their breasts. There is no distinction in the styles of mourning costume and no fixed period of mourning. For disposing of the dead and performing the last rites there are three recognized customs. The first of these is cremation a pyre being made on which the body is consumed. The second is water burial, the corpse being put into a stream to float and dissolve. The third is burial in the wilds the body being cast away in the woods to feed wild animals.

¹ *Pi na mu ching*, ch. 4 (No. 1138), *Life* ch. III and *Juhen* § p. 144.

When the sovereign dies the first thing is to place his successor on the throne in order that he may preside at the religious services of the funeral and determine precedence. Meritorious appellations are conferred on the living, the dead have no honorary designations. No one goes to take food in a family afflicted by death, but after the funeral matters are again as usual and no one avoids [the family]. Those who attend a funeral are regarded as unclean, they all wash outside the city walls before entering [the city].

As to those who have become very old, and whose time of death is approaching, who are afflicted by incurable disease and fear that their goal of life has been reached, such persons are content to separate from this world, and desire to cast off humanity, contemptuous of mortal existence and desirous to be away from the ways of the world. So their relatives and friends give them a farewell entertainment with music, put them in a boat and row them to the middle of the Ganges that they may drown themselves in it, saying that they will be born in Heaven, one out of ten will not carry out his contemptuous views.

The Buddhist Brethren are forbidden to wail aloud (i. e. over a departed one), on the death of a parent they read a service of gratitude, their "following the departed" and "being earnest about his death" are securing his bliss in the other world.

The clause "one out of ten will not carry out his contemptuous views" is a literal rendering of the original *Shih-yu-ch'i-yi-uei-chin-pi-chuen* (十有其一未盡鄙見). Julien, connecting the first part of this with what precedes and the latter part with what follows, translates—"On en compte un sur dix. *Il y en a d'autres qui, n'ayant pas encore complètement renoncé aux erreurs du siècle, sortent de la famille et adoptent la vie des religieux*". The words which I have placed in italics are the translator's interpolations, and the last clause is for the words *Ch'u-chia-sêng-chung* which belong to the next sentence. This treatment of the text quite destroys its meaning. What the author states is that out of ten old men who declare that they are sick of life, and want to leave it, only one is found acting inconsistently at the critical moment, saying that he is sick of life, and yet shrinking from suicide by drowning in the Ganges.

The Buddhist Brother, we are told, may not lament

over the death of a parent, but he shews his grateful remembrance by a religious service and his filial piety by obtaining for a deceased parent a happy hereafter. The expressions "following the departed" and "being earnest about his death" are taken from the first *chuan* of the *Lun yü*. There Tseng tzü says that "if there be earnestness about the death [of a parent] and a following of the departed one (i. e. parent) the moral character of the people will return to a state of thorough goodness." By 'earnestness about the death of a parent' the Confucianist meant being careful to have all the funeral rites duly observed and by 'following the departed parent' he meant keeping up the solemn services of worship to the deceased. These were services in which a man shewed his perfect filial piety but the professed Buddhist carried out his views of filial piety and a future state in securing to his parents happiness in other spheres of existence.¹ To the Confucianist the death of a relative was the 'end' of the relative, but to the Buddhist death was only a passing to another life.

REVENUE AND TAXATION

Our author next gives us a few particulars about the fiscal matters of Government in India.

✓ As the Government is generous official requirements are few. Families are not registered and individuals are not subject to forced labour contributions. Of the royal land there is a four fold division: one part is for the expenses of government and state worship; one for the endowment of great public servants; one to reward high intellectual eminence; and one for acquiring religious merit by gifts to the various sects. Taxation being light, and forced service being sparingly used, every one keeps to his hereditary occupation and attends to his patrimony. The king's tenants pay one sixth of the produce as rent. Tradesmen go to and fro bartering their merchandize after paying light duties at ferries and barrier stations. Those who are employed in the government service are paid according to their work. They go abroad on military service or they guard the palace.

the summonses are issued according to circumstances and after proclamation of the reward the enrolment is awaited. Ministers of state and common officials all have their portion of land, and are maintained by the cities assigned to them.

In this passage the words for "every one attends to his patrimony" are in the original *chiu-t'ien-k'ou-fen* (俱佃口分), and Julien translates "tous cultivent la terre pour se nourrir". This is not a correct rendering of the words and is at variance with what follows about the traders. The *k'ou-fên* in China was originally the farm of 100 *mou* given out of government lands to a married couple to maintain the family and keep up the ancestral worship. This farm was called *k'ou-fên-shih-ye-chih-t'ien* (口分世業之田) or "the arable land which is hereditary property for the maintenance of the family". Then *t'ien* (佃) which means "to cultivate", means also "to administer" or "manage", and *t'ien-k'ou-fên* is "to look after the family property", *k'ou-fên* being used in a general sense.

As to one sixth of the crop being paid by the king's tenants as rent we find mention of this in Manu and other authorities.¹

GENERAL PRODUCTS OF INDIA.

Our author now proceeds to tell us something of the commodities which India produces and first of its vegetable products. He writes—

As the districts vary in their natural qualities they differ also in their natural products. There are flowers and herbs, fruits and trees of different kinds and with various names. There are, for example, of fruits the amra or mango, the amla or tamarind, the Madhuka (*Bassia latifolia*), the badara or Jujube, the kapittha or wood apple, the amala or myrobalan, the tinduka or Diospyros, the udumbara or *Ficus glomerata*, the mocha or plantain, the narikela or Cocoa nut, and the panasa or Jack fruit. It is impossible to enumerate all the kinds of fruit and one can only mention in a summary way those which are held in esteem among the inhabitants. [Chinese] jujubes, chestnuts, green and red persimmons are not known in India. From Kashmir on, pears,

¹: Manu VII 130, 131, VIII 308

plums, peaches, apricots, grapes are planted here and there, pomegranates and sweet oranges are grown in all the countries

As to agricultural operations, reaping the crops, preparing the soil (lit ploughing and weeding), sowing and planting go on in their seasons according to the industry or laziness of the people. There is much rice and wheat, and ginger, mustard, melons, pumpkins, kunda (properly the olibanum tree) are also cultivated. Onions and garlic are little used and people who eat them are ostracised.

Milk, ghee, granulated sugar, sugar candy, cakes and parched grain with mustard seed oil are the common food, and fish, mutton, venison are occasional dainties (lit are occasionally served in joints or slices). The flesh of oxen, asses, elephants, horses, pigs, dogs, foxes, wolves, lions, monkeys, apes is forbidden and those who eat such food become pariahs.

There are distinctions in the use of their wines and other beverages. The wines from the vine and the sugar-cane are the drink of the Kshatriyas; the Vaisyas drink a strong distilled spirit, the Buddhist monks and the Brahmins drink syrup of grapes and of sugar cane, the low mixed castes are without any distinguishing drink.

As to household necessities there is generally a good supply of these of various qualities. But although they have different kinds of cooking implements they do not know the steaming boiler (i.e. they have not large boilers such as are used in large households in China). Their household utensils are mostly earthenware, few being of brass. They eat from one vessel in which the ingredients are mixed up, they take their food with their fingers. Generally speaking spoons and chop sticks are not used, except in cases of sickness when copper spoons are used.

Gold, silver, *tu shih* (bronze?), white jade, and crystal lenses are products of the country which are very abundant. Rare precious substances of various kinds from the sea ports (lit. sea-bays) are bartered for merchandise. But in the commerce of the country gold and silver coins, cowries, and small pearls are the media of exchange.

The words "From Kashmir on" in the first paragraph of the above passage seem to mean "from Kashmir on towards China". But Julien understood the words in a very different sense and translated the passage containing them as follows:—"Depuis que les deux espèces de poiriers

¹ The words are 梨杏桃葡萄等果起歷彌羅國已來往往間植石榴甘橘諸國皆樹

li et nai, le pêcher, l'amandier, la vigne et autres arbres à fruits ont été apportés du royaume de Cachemire, on les voit croître de tous côtés Les grenadiers et les orangers à fruits doux se cultivent dans tous les royaumes de l'Inde" In this, not to notice other faults we have the words "ont été apportés" interpolated to the serious detriment of the author's meaning Yüan chüang knew better than to state that pears and plums, and the other fruits mentioned had been brought from Kashmir into India and there cultivated everywhere Throughout the Records there is only, I believe, a single mention of any of these fruit trees in India This one instance is to be found in the account of *Chi-na po ti* in *Chuan* IV (Julien II p 200) and there the peach and pear are represented as having been first introduced into India from China In no account of India, so far as I know, down to the present time are the above trees enumerated among those grown commonly throughout the country Ibn Batuta does not mention them and they are not given in Sir W Hunter's account of India But they are grown in many countries between Kashmir and China, and in *Chuan* XII of the Records we find several instances mentioned On the other hand pomegranates which are said to grow wild in the Himalayan region, and sweet oranges have been extensively cultivated in India for many centuries

CHAPTER VI

CHUAN II CONT^d

LAMPA TO GANDHARA

Our pilgrim has now reached the territory which he, like others before and after him, calls India. But it is important to remember that the countries which he describes from Lan p'o to Rajpur both inclusive were not regarded by the people of India proper as forming part of their territory. It was only by foreigners that these districts were included under the general name *India*. To the inhabitants of India proper the countries in question were "border lands" inhabited by barbarians. This was a fact known to Yuan-chuang, but he named and described these States mainly from information obtained as he travelled. The information was apparently acquired chiefly from the Buddhist Brethren and believing laymen resident in these countries. To these Buddhists Jambudvīpa was India and the miracles and ministrations of the Buddha extended over all the great region vaguely called Jambudvīpa. Moreover the great foreign kings who had invaded India from the north had included these States in their Indian empire and the memory of these kings survived in the Buddhist religious establishments.

LAN-PO (LAMPA)

From Kapis the pilgrim continued his journey going east above 600 *li* through a very mountainous region, then crossing a black range he entered the north of India and arrived in the *Lan p'o* country.

Yuan-chuang writes this name 溫波, and thus apparently is for him the name both of the country and its capital. Some other authors write 風波,¹ and the local pronunciation was perhaps something like Lampa or Lumba. The word is supposed to represent the old Sanskrit *Lampaka*, and the *Lambatai* of Ptolemy,² and the district has been identified with the modern Laghman (or Lughman), the Lamghanat of Baber. This emperor mentions the curious tradition which derives the name Lamghanat from Lam, father of Noah, whose tomb was supposed to be in the country.³ But no probable explanation of the name Lampa (or Lumba) seems to have been given, and the word is probably foreign, that is, non-Indian.

Lampa is described by the pilgrims as being above 1000 *li* in circuit, having on the north the Snow mountains and on the other sides black ranges.

Another writer of the T'ang period represents this country as of much greater dimensions than those here given and as extending on the north to Kunduz and lying west of the *Wu-je-chih* or Anavatapta Lake.⁴ So also in Baber's time Lamghanat was a large region of much greater extent than Yuan-chuang's Lampa or the modern Lughman.

The capital, Yuan chuang tells us, was above ten *li* in circuit. For several centuries the native dynasty had ceased to exist, great families fought for preeminence, and the state had recently become a dependency of Kapis. The country produced upland rice and sugar cane, and it had much wood but little fruit, the climate was mild with little frost and no snow, the inhabitants were very musical but they were pusillanimous and deceitful, ugly and ill-mannered, their clothing was chiefly of cotton (*pai tieh*) and they dressed well. There were above ten Buddhist monasteries and a few Brethren the most of whom were Mahayanists. The non-Buddhists had a score or two of temples and they were very numerous.

¹ See e. g. Sung Shih, *ch* 490.

² A. G. I. p. 42. Mc Crindle's *India from Ptolemy* p. p. 104, 106.

* ³ Baber p. 141-143.

⁴ Fang chih, *ch* 1.

In the common texts here the author is made to state that the non-Buddhists were *very few*, but the old reading is found in the A text viz. to 'many' and it is evidently the right one. This reading moreover is confirmed by the Fang chih which quoting from our pilgrim's account of this country tells us that in it 'the non-Buddhists were remarkably numerous'

This country does not seem to have ever been much known to the Chinese generally, and it is rarely mentioned even in the translations of the Buddhist books or in the accounts of the travels and in the biographies of eminent worthies of the Buddhist religion. There was however, at least one distinguished Buddhist scholar who is called a Brahmin from the Lampa country and who is recorded as having visited China. This pious and learned Brother we are informed in the year A.D. 700 assisted in the translation from Sanskrit into Chinese of a celebrated treatise of magical invocations.¹ Lampa was evidently a district of some importance and it may have been known by some native or local name.

NAGAR.

The pilgrim according to the narrative in the Records proceeded from Lampa south east above 100 li crossing a high mountain and a large river and reached the *La lie(ka) lo-ho* country.

The Life here represents Yuan chuang as going south from Lampa and crossing a small range on which a tope to commemorate the spot at which the Buddha having travelled on foot from the south rested on arriving in these regions. Then the Life makes the pilgrim continue his journey from this range still going southward for above

¹ The title of this treatise is 'Pu lung chuan so to lo ni ching' (Bun. No. 314). The translator's name is given as Li wu tao and he is called a brahmin of Lan po in North India. It is doubtful however whether the Chinese text of No. 314 was actually the work of this man, see the note appended to the work. See also Su ku-chin y, ching tu chi (No. 1488).

twenty *li* descending the hills and crossing a river into the *Na ka lo ho* country

This country, which we may suppose to have been called by a name like Nagar, is one of considerable interest, and as the account given of it in the Records and the Life is peculiar, and rather puzzling, it may be useful to examine the account at some length

In the Records Yuan chuang describes Nagar as being above 600 *li* (about 120 miles) from east to west and 200 or 260 *li* (about 50 miles) from north to south. The country was surrounded on all sides by high mountains steep and difficult of passage. Its capital was above 20 *li* in circuit but there was no king and the State was a province of Kapis. Grain and fruits were produced in abundance the climate was mild the people were of good character courageous shunning wealth and esteeming learning reverencing Buddha and having little faith in other religious systems. But although there were many Buddhist establishments the Brethren were very few. There were five Deva Temples and above 100 professed non Buddhists.

About two *li* to the east (in the Life south east) of the capital stood a great stone tope above 300 feet high which had marvellous sculptures. Close to this tope on the west side was a vihara and adjoining the vihara on the south was a small tope. The former of these two topes was said to have been built by king Asoka at the place where Sakya Pusa having spread in the mud his deer skin mantle and his hair for Dipankara Buddha received from the latter the prediction of Buddhahood. At the periodic annihilations and restorations of the world the traces of this incident are not effaced and on fast days showers of flowers descend on the spot which is regarded with great reverence. The small tope was at the spot where the mantle and hair were spread on the mud [the other tope] having been erected by king Asoka in a retired place off the highway.

Yuan chuang next takes us into the city and tells us of the foundations which still remained of the grand tope which he was informed had once contained a tooth relic of the Buddha. Close to these was a remarkable small tope of unknown origin and popularly supposed to have come down out of space. The narrative in our text next takes us to a tope above ten *li* south west of the city. This tope marked the spot at which the Buddha alighted from his aerial voyage from Mid India to this country. Near the tope of the Descent on the east side was another tope to commemorate the spot at which on the

occasion of the meeting the Pusa bought five lotus flowers for an offering to Dipankara Buddha.

Continuing in a south western direction from the city, and at a distance of above twenty *li* from it the pilgrim takes us to a small range of rocky hills containing a stone monastery with lofty halls and tiers of chambers all silent and unoccupied. Within the grounds of this establishment was a tope 200 feet high built by King Asoka.

Going on again south west from this monastery we come to a ravine with a torrent the banks of which were steep rocks. In the east bank was the cave inhabited by the Gopala dragon very dark and with a narrow entrance and with water trickling from the rock to the path. In this cave the Buddha had left his shadow or rather a luminous image of himself in the rock once a clear and perfect resemblance but at the period of our pilgrim's visit to the district the wonderful likeness was only dimly visible and only at certain times and to certain persons. Outside the Shadow Cave were two square stones on one of which was a light emitting impress of the Buddha's foot. On either side of the Shadow Cave were other caves which had been used by the Buddha's great disciples as places for ecstatic meditation (*samadhi*). In the immediate neighbourhood of the Shadow Cave also the pilgrim found various topes and other objects associated with the Buddha's personal visit to this district.

Following the narrative in the Records we have now to return to the city. Starting again from it and going in a south east direction for above thirty *li* we come to a city called *Hi lo* (or *He lo*). This city, which was four or five *li* in circuit had a strong elevated situation with charming gardens and ponds. Within it was a two storeyed building in which were carefully preserved the Ushnisha bone of the Buddha his skull one of his eyes his mendicant's staff and one of his clerical robes. To the north of this Relic house was a wonder working tope which could be shaken by a touch of the finger.

There are one or two discrepancies between the account here given and that in the Life. Thus in the Records the Buddha comes to Nagar country through the air and alights at a spot ten *li* south west from "the city", but in the Life he arrives on foot at a place north of Nagar. Then as to Hilo, the Life differs from the Records in placing this city at about 12 *li* distance south east from the Flowers Tope.

The Nagar of our text, it is agreed, is represented by the region in modern times called Nungnehar, that is Nine Rivers. In Baber's time Nungnihar, 'in many histories written Nekerhar', was a tuman of Lamghan (Lampa) ¹ The Nagar country thus included the present district of Jelalabad the valley of the Cabul River from Darunta on the west to Mirza Kheyl on the east and according to Mr Simpson, it "might reach from about Jugduluck to the Khyber" ² Our text makes Yuan chuang visit two cities of this country, the capital and Hilo the former capital. As to the latter all investigators seem to be agreed that the Hilo of Yuan chuang and the other pilgrims is represented by the modern Hidda (or Heida or Hada) a place situated about five miles south of Jelalabad.

As to the site of the city called Nagar supposed to have been the capital of the country "in the Buddhist period" there is some diversity of opinion. The Na kie (ka) lo ho of Yuan chuang is evidently the Na kie(ka) of Fa hsien who uses the name for city and country. It is also the Na kie city and the Na ka lo ho of the Sung yun narrative in the "Ka lan chi", and also the Na kie of a Vinaya treatise translated in A D 378 ³

Julien makes Na ka lo ho stand for Nagarahāra and in a note he tells us that in the Sung annals we find Nang-go lo ho lo which answers exactly to the Indian orthography furnished by the inscription discovered by Captain Kittoe. Julien is of course followed, and his identification accepted by subsequent writers, and on his and Lassen's authority the P W gives Nagarahara as the name of a kingdom. But this word cannot be made out of Yuan-chuang's four characters which apparently give the full name. Then as to Nang go lo-ho lo the writer in the

¹ Baber p 141

² J R A S Vol. xiii Art VII

³ Fo kuo chi c/ 13, Ka lan chi ch o, Pi ni ye chung (the Chie yin yuan chung Bun. No 1130).

"Sung Shi" quotes a Buddhist monk who evidently wrote without knowledge. The passage referred to by Julien puts Udyāna, which was immediately to the north of Gandhāra, twelve days' journey to the east of that country. Then it places Gandhāra at a distance of twenty days' journey eastward from Nang-go-lo-ho-lo and it makes the latter to be ten days' journey to the east of Lampa.¹ But Yuan chuang's Nagar was only five or six days' journey north west from Gandhāra and about twenty miles south or south east from Lampa. Thus Nang-go-lo-ho-lo does not agree with Nagar either in distances or directions and its situation is imaginary and impossible. Then the Nagarahara of Kittoe's Sanskrit inscription of about the 8th or 9th century is evidently not the Nagar of Yuan chuang and the other Chinese pilgrims. The inscription represents Viadeva, son of Indira Gupta a Brahman of Bengal, as becoming a Buddhist and going to the "holy convent called Kanishka" (śrīmat Kanishkam upagāmya mahā-vihāram) in Nagarahāra.² Now there is no mention by any of the pilgrims of a great Kanishka monastery in Nagar, city or country. But there was a celebrated one in Gandhāra near Purushapur and the Nagarahāra of the Kittoe inscription is evidently the Gandhāra country.

Cunningham places the capital of Yuan chuang's Nagar "at Begram, about two miles to the west of Jalalabad".³ Saint Martin supposes it to have been a little to the west of this Bēgrām. Mr Simpson, who writes after careful inspection and study of the locality, places the site of the Nagar capital west of Bēgrām on a rocky elevation at the junction of the Suikhāb and Cabul rivers. No one of these identifications meets all the requirements of the descriptions, but each is supported to a certain extent by the statements in the Records.

If we take the narrative in the Records and read it in

¹ Sung-Shih I c

² J A S Ben Vol viii p 494

³ A G I p 44

connection with that in the Life we find that there were three cities in this district visited by the pilgrim. These are the capital, the city of the Dipankara Buddha, and Hilo the city of the Ushnisha relic. Now as the Records make mention of only the first and third of these by name it may perhaps be taken for granted that Yuan-chuang mixed up in his mind the first and second when writing out his notes. So the term "the city" seems to stand sometimes for the capital but more frequently for the city of Dipankara. The confusion apparently affected the compilers of the Life also.

Combining the two narratives we find that Yuan-chuang on entering the country apparently went directly towards the capital. Thus he describes, as has been stated, as "above 20 *li* [in circuit]". The word *Chou* for "in circuit" is found only in the D text, but some such term is needed and the use of *Chou* agrees with Yuan chuang's usual way of describing towns and districts. The reader will observe, however, that we are not told anything about the natural and artificial characteristics of the capital, about its situation or surroundings. This silence is very extraordinary if we regard the city to have been on the site proposed and described by M^r Simpson.

Moreover the Adinapur of Baber was apparently on the site of Yuan-chuang's Nagar (or Nagar-kot) and it was a fort. Baber describes the fort as "situated on an eminence, which, towards the river, is forty or fifty gez (100 feet or upwards), in perpendicular height", a description which agrees with that given by Mr Simpson of the Nagar rock. This fort Baber tells us was the official residence of the darogha or commandant of the district.

Let us now substitute "Nagar fortress" for "the Capital" and "the city" in the first part of the pilgrim's narrative. We find then that the great Asoka tope was about two li or nearly half a mile to the east (or south-east) of the fortress. Turning to Masson and Simpson we find that they give a tope called "Nagara Goondée" which is apparently about three furlongs to the east or south-east of the Nagar rock.¹

From the Flower Tope near the Asoka Tope the pilgrim, according to the Life, set out south-east for Hilo, the city of the Ushnisha relic. On the way apparently, but this is not quite clear, he learns of the Gopāla Dragon cave with the miraculous likeness of the Buddha. Wishing to visit this, Yuan-chuang had to go out of his way to the Têng-kuang (燈光) city in order to obtain a guide. The term Têng-kuang is used to translate the word Dipankara, name of a very early Buddha, but we need not suppose that it represents the name of the city. Now the Têng-kuang city was apparently that called Na-kie(ka) by previous pilgrims, and it was apparently a little to the west of the site of the modern Jelalabad. One name for it was Padmapur or Lotus city. This is given by some Chinese as *Hua-shi ch'êng*, or Flower City; and it is said to be another name for the capital of the Nagar country. A more common name for Dipankara's City in Buddhist books is Dipavati from *dipa*, a torch or light. We may for the present, however, use Padmapur to represent the name of the city, as we have no means of knowing what

¹ Masson's *Ar. Ant.* p. 100 et al.

the name actually was, that is, supposing it not to have been simply Nagar

This Padmapur then, let us assume was the Na-ka city which had the ruins of the Tooth tope, a tope which had been seen by Fa hsien in perfect condition. It was this city also from which Hilo was distant about 30 li to the south-east. Then from it Yuan-chuang went south-west to the Shadow-Cave, and from this south east to Hilo.

Now going from Padmapur south-west at a distance of above 20 li was a small rocky hill which had a great Buddhist monastery with an Asoka tope above 200 feet high. This monastery and tope may be represented by the ruins at Gunda Chismeh of Mr Simpson's map, "the smooth rounded mound of a tope and the rectangular mound of a vihara." Some distance from this on the east bank of a torrent was the Diagon's cave with the luminous picture of the Buddha on the rock. Fa-hsien places the cave about half a Yojana south from the Nakie city. His words are "Half a Yojana south of Nakie city is a cave as you follow the course of the hills towards the south-west." The words in italics are for the Chinese 博山西 山向 which our translators understood to mean a *great mountain towards the south west*. The phrase *poh-shan* is certainly used in the sense of a "great mountain" and this is its proper meaning. Here, however, as in some other cases the construction seems to require that the words be taken in the sense of *going along a hill* (or series of hills). This word *poh* is probably, as has been stated already, the *poh* of *hui poh* (迴 縛) of *Chuan I* of these Records, and also the *poh* (搏) of various passages in the *Fo kuo chi* and other works.

There does not seem to be any satisfactory explanation of the names Nagar and Hilo. If the former be for Nagar its memory may be kept up in the modern designation Begram which like Nagar means a "city." Or the syllable Nag or Nak may possibly be for the Indian word naga which denotes the *sun*, a *snake*, a *mountain*, an *elephant*. Masson says that the old name

for the country was Ajuna and Saint Martin and Cunningham think this word may be a corruption of another old name for it, viz Udyanapur or "the city of the Garden". But no one seems to give any authority for this last old name and it is apparently unknown to Chinese authors and translators. It may be added that this district is referred to in some Chinese books as in the Yue-shi (Getæ) country of North India. It is also called *Ye-p'o-lan-tê* (葉波乾陀), that is perhaps, Yavakānda, and it is said to be to the west of Udyana.

As to Hilo, Cunningham would have us regard this word as a transposition of the Sanskrit word *Hadda*, meaning a "bone". But there were several Hilos in North India, and the relic supposed to have given the name is not called in Sanskrit by any term containing a word for "bone". It was the *Ushnisha* of the Buddha that Hilo contained along with other relics of the Buddha. Some Chinese translators, it is true, call the relic "the bone of the top of Buddha's head," but others give a different rendering, or keep the original word. The full name and some of the translations will be given a few pages farther on. We may perhaps regard the name in our text as for *Hila* which was probably a local pronunciation for *Śīla*. This word means a *rock* or *rocky eminence*, and the name suits the description of the place.

BODHISATTVA AND DĪPANKARA

From the account given of the Nagar country by our pilgrim we see that the district had several objects of attraction to a Buddhist. The principal of these objects were the mementos of the Pusa's meeting with Dīpankara Buddha, the luminous image of Gautama Buddha in the Dragon's cave, and his *Ushnisha*-bone. A few additional observations about each of these may be of interest to the student.

The story of the Pusa in an exceedingly remote period of time in his existence as a Brahman student meeting the Dīpankara Buddha and giving him worship and service

is a well known one. It is found in the Sanskrit *Mahāvastu*¹ and *Divyavadāna*² in the Pālī *Jātakas*³ and in several forms in Chinese translations from Indian originals. No one of all these treatises so far as I know, places the scene of this meeting in a country called *Nāgar*. In the different accounts various names are given to the city of the incident. Thus it is called *Rammanagara* (or *Rammavati* or *Rammagama*)⁴. This would seem to point to *Ayodhya* the modern *Oudh* but the *Jataka* places *Ramma* city in "the frontier territory". The city is also called *Dipavati* or *Dipavat*⁵ from *dīpa*, a *light*. It is also *Padma pūra* or *Lotus city* in Chinese *Lien hua cheng* or *Hua shi cheng*⁶. The last name means simply *Flower city* and it is properly applied to *Paṭalipur*. It is said, however as has been seen to be an old name for *Nāgar* city and it was given on account of the *Lotus Ponds* of the city.

The *Pusa* as brahmin student variously named *Megha* *Su medha* and otherwise on his way to see *Dipankara* Buddha met a maiden carrying seven lotus flowers for the service of a shrine in the palace grounds. The *Pusa* bargained with the maiden for five of her flowers that he might have them to throw on the Buddha as he passed in procession. At the spot where the flowers were bought, an act involving great consequences in the distant future, king *Asoka* had built a *tope*. It is remarkable that the *Pālī Jataka* does not make any mention of the purchase and offering of the lotus flowers.

Then there was the place at which the *Pusa* spread out his deer skin mantle and his hair on the muddy road

¹ *Mahavastu* T I p 193

² *Divyav* p 246

³ *Rhys Davids Birth Stories* p 7 *B Gandet's Legend* Vol 1 p 7

⁴ *Mahavamsa* Int p XXXII

⁵ *Yin kuo ching* (Bun No 666)

⁶ *Fo shuo ta tzu sui ying pen chi ching* ch 1 (Bun No 665)

Tseng yi a han ching ch 11 (Bun No 543) *Hsing chi ching* c/s 2 3 (Bun No 680)

to preserve Dipankara's feet from being defiled. On the road by which this Buddha was proceeding to the capital on this memorable occasion were several dirty muddy places which the people were trying to make clean. The brahmin student, at his own request, was allowed to put right a hollow in the road made by running water. Unable to fill up this muddy gap on the approach of the Buddha, he spread out in it his deerskin mantle, and then lay down prostrate with his long hair spread out for the Buddha to step on. Though the world had passed away and been renewed since the time of Dipankara and Megha (or Sumati) yet the depression in the road remained visible, being renewed with the renewal of the world. Close to the spot was a small tope of great antiquity, the successor of the original wooden stake, and not far from it was a very magnificent tope built by king Asoka.

This myth of the Pusa and the Dipankara Buddha seems to be very unbuddhistical, and its origin should perhaps be sought outside of religion. We remember that one of Gotama's royal ancestors was a king Dipankara who with "his sons and grandsons also twelve royal princes governed their great kingdom in Takkasilā best of towns"¹. A picture of this king, with a conquered chief prostrate before him, may have suggested the story. Such a picture may be seen in Plate VII fig 5 of the "Ariana Antiqua". Compare with this the illustration of Dipankara and the Pusa in Burgess's "Buddhist Cave Temples" p. 66. Here the Buddha does not tread on the hair of the prostrate devotee at his side. The story is explained by some as originally an allegory to express Gautama's resolve to undergo all things in this world of impurities in order to obtain perfect wisdom and teach the way thereof to mortal creatures. A simpler theory is that the brahmin student laid down his deer-skin mantle and his hair before the Buddha to declare to the latter the student's resolve to give up Brahminism and become a professed Buddhist.

¹ Dipavamsa p. 131

As such he must shave his head and cease to wear garments made of the skins of animals

THE SHADOW CAVE

According to Yuan chuang's account the Gopāla Diagon cave, with the likeness of the Buddha shining at times in the rock opposite the entrance, was on the east side of a torrent among the heights to the south-west of the Nagar, that is, the Padma city. Mr Simpson thinks that the range of hills which extends from the Ahin Posh Tope south of Jelalabad south west to Sultanpur does not suit Yuan chuang's description of the surroundings of this cave. But his objections seem to be based mainly on the occurrence of the words *cascade* and *mountain* in the translations. There is nothing however, corresponding to either of these terms in the original either of the Life or Records. The road from the city was a bad one and dangerous, but it led to a hamlet with a monastery. Not far from this, above the steep bank of a foaming torrent, was the cave.

In the "K'ā lan chū" the narrative at the part about the Nagar country has this statement—"On to Ku¹ lo lo lu saw the cave of Buddha's shadow advancing 15 paces into the hill the entrance facing west. Burnouf who treats this short passage as corrupt makes "Gopala Cave" out of the four Chinese characters represented in the above transcription. This he effects by treating the first *lo* as a mistake for *po* and the last character *lu* as a mistake for *chū* & *diei* for a *cave* as he represents it. But if we take the Chinese characters as we find them they give us Kulā la lol that is the Pottery people. Now this reminds us of an interesting passage in the Chinese version of the Life of King Asoka.² There Yasa tells the king how the Buddha just before his death converted the Dragon king Apālala the Potter, and the Chandāl Dragon king. Burnouf translating from the Sanskrit text of this passage has "the potter's wife the Chandāl Gopāl while the editors of the Divyavādaṇa treat Kumbhakarī (Potter's wife) as a proper name.²

With reference to this cave and its surroundings the following passage from the 'Ariana Antiqua' may be found of some interest.—Tracing the skirts of the Sirk koh is a road leading from Bala Bagh to Darunta and thence across the river of Kabul and Jelalabad to Laghman. From Bala Bagh to the ferry at Darunta may be a distance of seven miles. At about five miles on this road coming from Bala Bagh, we meet the topes of Kotpur situated a little on our right hand. The first is in the midst of cultivation about one hundred yards from the road, a deep ravine through which flows a stream derived from the Surkh Rud (red river) separates it from its two companions. These stand on a dark or barren level overspread with fragments of

¹ A yu wang ching c/ 2 (No 1343). In c/ 6 of this treatise the chandala Dragon king is called Ku¹ po lo (Gopāla) and in c/ 1 of the "A yu wang chuan" he is the "Qx Dragon" of Gandhavar. In the Tsa a han ching c/ 93 (No 214) Buddha subdues the dragon Apālala the potter chandala and the Gopāl dragon.

² Bur Int p 3. Divyav p 348. S e Legges Fa Hian p 99.

Hilo This is called by Yuan chuang and the other pilgrims Buddha's *ting lu* (頂骨) or *Bone of the top of the head*. The Sanskrit term is Ushniśha śrīśha or Ushniśha śrīśkata. As to the latter part of these compounds there is no doubt the words being from *siras* the *head*. But in the literature of India the word ushniśha has two meanings: (1) the hair done up into a coil on the top of the head and (2) a peculiar kind of turban or other head-dress. But the Buddhas cut off their hair and did not wear caps or turbans.¹ So a new use was given to the term in Buddhism, and it was applied to the cranial protuberance which was one of the thirty two distinguishing marks of a Buddha. This protuberance was supposed to be a sort of abnormal development of the upper surface of the skull into a small truncated cone covered with flesh and skin and hair. But some like Yuan chuang, regarded it as a separate formation on, but not a part of, the top of the skull. This Ushniśha śrīśha among the Buddhists was one of the thirty two marks not only of a Buddha but also of a Chakravartin and a Maha-purusha. But, as Senart has pointed out, it is not in the list of the signs of the Great Man (Mahā puruṣa) in Brahminical writings such as the "Bṛihat Samhita".

According to Yuan chuang's description the Ushniśha in Hilo was

twelve inches in circumference with the hair pores distinct and of a yellowish white colour. It was kept in a casket deposited in the small tope made of the seven precious substances which was in the second storey of the decorated Hall. Pilgrims made a fragrant plaster and with it took a cast of the upper surface of the bone, and according to their Karma read in the traces on the plaster their weal or their woe.

In addition to the term already given as a rendering for Ushniśha there are several other Chinese translations

¹ In Max Muller's *Dharma Samgraha* p. 54 *ushniśha* is translated by *Cap*. This rendering is not supported by any Buddhist authority and it is at variance with the descriptions and explanations given in the Buddhist books.

² *Lesai sur la leg du Bud* p. 111.

or interpretations of the Sanskrit word. Thus we have *ting jou-chi* (頂肉髻) that is, "the flesh top-knot on the top of the head", and *ju-chi-ku* or "the bone of the flesh top knot".¹ The Buddha is also described as having, as one of the thirty-two marks, "on the top of his head the ushniṣha like a deva sun-shade";² or as having "on the top of his head the ushniṣha golden skull top bone",³ and we also read that on the top of the Buddha's head is "manifested the ushniṣha", that is, manifested occasionally as a marvellous phenomenon. It is also stated that the ushniṣha is not visible to the eyes of ordinary beings.⁴

Nearly two hundred years before Yuan-chuang's time a Chinese pilgrim by name *Chih-mêng* (智猛) had seen, it is recorded, the Ushniṣha-bone along with other relics of the Buddha in Kapilavastu, but this must be regarded as a mistake of a copyist.⁵ Two later pilgrims *Tao lin* and *Hsuan-chao*, the latter a contemporary of Yuan-chuang, visited Kāpi and there paid reverence to the ushniṣha or skull-top bone of the Buddha.⁶ By Kāpi we are probably to understand Nāgar then a part of the Kāpi kingdom. Then a century after Yuan-chuang's time *Hui-k'ung* went to see "Śākyā Jula's skull top bone (or Ushniṣha) relic" in the city of Gāndhāra.⁷

It is interesting to observe that we do not find mention of any Buddhist monks as being concerned in any way with this precious relic. Fa-hsien, indeed, places it in a *chung shê* or temple, but this was apparently only the name which he gave to the building because it contained the relic. Yuan-chuang does not make mention of any sacred

¹ *Hsing chi ching*, ch. 9. *Kuan Fo san mei hai ching*, ch. 1, where the *ting shang jou chi* is one of the 32 marks of a *ta chang fu* (大丈人) or Mahapurusha, *Chang chao fan chih ching wen ching* (Bun No 734).

² *Fa chi ming shu ching* (No 812).

³ *Chung hsu ching*, ch. 3 (No 859).

⁴ *Ta ming san tsang fa shu*, ch. 48 (No 1621).

⁵ *Kao seng chuan*, ch. 3.

⁶ *Hsi yu chuan*, ch. 1, 2.

⁷ *Shih li ching*, and J. A. T. VI, p. 357.

building, he refers only to a tall two-storey building and this is apparently the high two-storeyed Hall of Pa-hsien. The latter pilgrim also mentions the small tope of the seven precious substances in which the casket containing the ushinisha was kept. This little tope is described by Pa-hsien as being moreover free opening and shutting and about five feet in height¹.

The official custodians of the relic paid all expenses by charging the devout pilgrims according to a fixed tariff for seeing the relic and for also taking an impression of its upper surface in clay or wax, and they acted in like manner with the other Buddha relics under their care.

The "Bone of the top of Buddha's skull" in shape like a wasp's nest or the back of the arched hand which was shown to believing pilgrims in Hilo was of course an imposture. It was perhaps the polished skull-cup of some ancient Sikan chief preserved originally as an heir-loom². We have seen that a segment of the Buddha's skull-bone was preserved as a sacred relic in the Kaps country.

GANDHĀRA.

The pilgrim's narrative in the Records proceeds to relate that 'from this (that is from somewhere near the site of the modern Jerusalem) he went south east among hills and valleys for above 500 *li* and came to the *Kan'fo-lo* (Gandhara) country. This country was above 1000 *li* from east to west and above 800 *li* north to south, reaching on the east to the *Sin* (in the D text,

¹ *P'o kuo chü, ch* XIII. The term which is here rendered by 'free' is *chie' toh* (髑髏 脫). In the translations of the passage the *chie' toh ta* becomes 'tours de délivrance', 'Final emancipation tower' and 'Vimoksha tope'. Nothing is known of such topes or towers, and there is no meaning in the translations. A *chie' toh ta* is a tope, not closed up but provided with a door opening and shutting as required. Other topes containing relics were securely fastened, but this one was released from the bonds of solid masonry so far as the relic was concerned.

² It was made of flesh and bone, was of the capacity of the hollow of the hand, of a dark colour, round, and very beautiful (*Abhi-ta-vib ch* 177).

Sin-ti river. The capital *Pi-hu-sha-pu-lo* (Parushapur) was above 40 li in circuit, the royal family was extinct and the country was subject to Kapis, the towns and villages were desolate and the inhabitants were very few in one corner of the royal city (*Kung cheng*) there were above 1000 families. The country had luxuriant crops of cereals and a profusion of fruits and flowers, it had much sugar cane and produced sugar candy. The climate was warm with scarcely any frost or snow the people were faint hearted and fond of the practical arts the majority adhered to other systems of religion a few being Buddhists.

The *Kan'to-lo* of this passage is doubtless the Gandhara or Gaudhara of Indian writers. In a Chinese note we are told that the old and incorrect name was Gandharat (*Kan'to-uei*) and that the country was in "North India". But in several Chinese treatises *Kan'to-uei* or the short form *Kan'to* is the designation of a large and rather vague region which does not always correspond to the Gandhara of our pilgrim. Thus Fa-hsien for example, uses it to denote a city and district in this region quite distinct from the Parushapur district.¹ In the *Ka-hu-chi* we find Gandha and also Gandhara used to designate both a city and the country in which the city was situated.² The *Wei Shu* places the district of Gandha to the west of Udyana and makes it quite distinct from Kapi.³ Then Gandharat and Gandhara are names of a vague "north country" in which was the inexhaustible treasure-store of the nigra-ga-Elipatra.⁴ In some books we find Gandhara associated with Kapi (Kashmir) either as a part of the latter or as a neighbouring state. Thus the apostle Madhyantika was deputed to go to 'Kapi Gaudhara-chi' and here I think the syllable *che* (or *cha*) in the Chinese translations stands for the Sanskrit word *cha* meaning

¹ Fo kuo chi ch 12

² Ch 5

³ Cf 102

⁴ See A na pin ta hia chi tzu chung (No 649) Taeng yi a han chin ch 49 (No 543) Fo shuo Mi le ta ch eng Fo chung (No 209) Divyav p 61

"and" ¹ In Wu k'ung's 'Itinerary' Gandhara is described as the eastern capital of Kapin the winter residence of the king of that country, but to the west of Kashmir ² The name Gandhara is an old one in Buddhist literature and it is found in one of the Asoka Edicts ³ It is interpreted in some places as meaning 'Earth holder' ⁴ but while there is a Sanskrit word *dharā* meaning "holding" there does not seem to be any Sanskrit word like *gan* meaning "Earth" Taken as Gandharat the name is explained as meaning *hsing hsing* (香行) or 'scent action' from the word *gandha* which means *scent, small perfume* ⁵

In some books we find the name *Shih shih* (石室) *luo* or "Cave country" applied to Gandhara and the capital called *Shih shih ch'ing* or Cave city ⁶ and this is evidently another name for Takshāśilā. An old or native name for Gandhara is given as *Ie j o lo* (犍波羅) perhaps for Abir, but this seems to have been local and temporary. We are told, in fact, that it ceased to be used after the country was conquered by the *Ie ta* (唃廝囉 or 提怛) that is the Yets or Gats apparently near the end of our 5th century ⁷ Further in some Chinese books Gandhara is said to be the *Hsiao yue ti* country, the district of the offshoot of the Yue ti or Getā, or at least to include the region so called ⁸ The *Ie ta* who were a powerful people in Central Asia in the 5th century, are also said to have been of the Yue ti stock ⁹ but some regard them as of Turkish and others as of Tibetan origin.

In the above passage the words taken to denote that

¹ *Shan ch'ien lu* vol. 2 (No. 112) cf. *Mah. ch.* VIII

² *Shih li-chung*

³ No. 5 of the Rock Edicts. Fleet in *Ind. Ant.* Vol. xxii p. 178

⁴ *A yü wang ching* ch. 10 (commentary).

⁵ *Su k'ao : ng chuan* ch. 2 (No. 147)

⁶ *A yü jün ti lua ch'ü tzu ching* *A yü wang hsi lua mu yü jün yuan* ch. 12 (No. 1367)

Ka lin ch. ch. 1 *Wei shu* ch. 109

⁷ *Wei shu* L. c. *Tung chih la* 卷五 小月氏

⁸ *Tung-ch'ien kang mu* 卷五 *Jiang Wu Ti* 犍波羅 3rd year

Gandhara had "much sugar cane and that it produced sugar candy (lit stone honey)" 出石蜜. The translators in their renderings here have inserted a gloss which makes Yuan chuang state that the sugar candy was made by the people from the sugar cane. Julien translates the words—"il produit aussi beaucoup de cannes à sucre et l'on en tire du miel en pierre (du sucre solide)". Here the words "l'on en tire" are not warranted by the text which has merely the ordinary word *ch'u*. This word here as in other passages of the Records simply means "it (that is, the country) yields or produces". We know also from other sources that the Chinese at this time did not know of sugar as a product of the sugar cane. In consequence of information obtained from India the Emperor Tang Tai Tsung sent a mission to that country to learn the art of making sugar and candy from the Sugar cane. This candy was merely molasses dried or 'sugar in pieces'. It was at first "hard (or stone) honey" to the Chinese, as sugar was honey to the ancient westerns.¹

The *Pu lu sha pu lo* or Purushapur of our text has been supposed to be the Parshawai of later writers, the Purushavar of Alberuni, and the Peshawar of modern times.² Fa hsien uses the term "Purusha country" and makes this a distinct place four days' journey south from his Gandharv country. Sung jun does not seem to have known the name Purusha, and he uses Gandhara for country and capital. As has been stated, the Nagaravara of Kittoes Sanskrit inscription is evidently the city and district called Purushapur. This name is interpreted as meaning 'the city of the Hero', in Chinese *Chang fu kung* (丈夫宮) or Hero's Palace,³ the Purusha or "Hero" being Vishnu as the conqueror of the terrible Asura.

Yuan chuang proceeds to state that

¹ Pen tsao kang mu ch 33, Tang Shu ch 221 second part.

² A G I p 47 ff for this and Gandhara generally Alberuni Vol II p 11

³ Su kao seng chuan ch 2

of the Buddhist Masters in India who since old times had written *sūtras* (*論* *ron*) there were Nārāyaṇa deva 那羅 (Asaṅga) Pusa *Shih chin* (Vasubandhu) Pusa Dharmatāra Manoratha(?) and Parsa the Venerable who were natives of this district

Julien translates this passage as follows—"Depuis l'antiquité, ce pays a donné le jour à un grand nombre de docteurs indiens qui ont composé des Traités (*Çastres*), par exemple : Nārāyaṇa Deva, Asaṅga, Vasubandhu, Dharmatāra, Manorhita Arya Paṇḍita, &c &c" There is nothing in the text, however, corresponding to the *grand nombre*, the *par exemple*, or the &c. &c of this rendering. Instead of the word *pu* (不), which is in Julien's Chinese text, there should be *yu* (有), the reading of the A and D texts. Of the writers of *sūtras* or disquisitions mentioned here only three are known as authors of Buddhist books which have come down to us, viz Asaṅga, Vasubandhu, and Dharmatāra. The Nārāyaṇa deva appears again in this treatise as a deva or god, and it is perhaps the incarnation of Vishnu so named that is represented here as a philosophical Buddhist writer, or Yuan chuang may have heard that the "Dharma-*sūtra*" which bears the name of Vishnu was written by the god. But we must remember that Nārāyaṇa is a name common to several ancient philosophers of India. The other *sūtra*-writers of Gandhāra will meet us again as we proceed.

There were above 1000 Buddhist monasteries in the country but they were utterly dilapidated and untenanted. Many of the *topes* also were in ruins. There were above 100 Deva temples and the various sects lived pell mell. In the north east part of the capital were the remains of the building which once contained the Buddha's Alms bowl. After the Buddha's decease the Bowl had wandered to this country and after having been treated with reverence here for some centuries it had gone on to several other countries and was now in *Po la ssā* (Persia).

The Buddha's Bowl was seen by Fa-hsien in a monastery in Puruṣa, where it was in the care of the Buddhist Brethren. Kumarajiva saw it in *Sha le* or Kashgar, and

Chih-meng saw it in Kapin¹ Our pilgrim here represents the Bowl as having passed away from Purushapur and as being in Persia, but the Land instead of Persia has Benares. According to other authorities the Buddha's Bowl moved about from place to place, passing mysteriously through the air, and working miracles for the good of the people until it passed (or passes) out of sight in the palace of the Dragon king Sagara. There it will remain until the advent of Maitreya as Buddha when it will appear again to be a witness. According to some texts the Bowl was broken once by the wicked king Mihirakula, but the pieces seem to have come together again. As no one less than a Buddha could ever eat from this Bowl, so no one less than a Buddha could move it from its resting place, borne by the hidden impulses of human karma it floated about from one chosen seat to another as Buddhism waxed or waned².

About eight or nine li to the south east of the capital was a large and very ancient sacred Pipphal Tree above 100 feet high with wide spreading foliage affording a dense shade. Under it the Four Past Buddhas had sat and all the 996 Buddhas of the Bhadra kalpa are to sit here, the images of the Four Buddhas in the sitting posture were still to be seen. When Sakya Jui was sitting under this tree with his face to the south he said to Ananda— Four hundred years after my decease a sovereign will reign by name Kanishka who a little to the south of this will raise a stupa in which he will collect many of my flesh and bone relics. To the south of the Pipphal Tree was the stupa erected by Kanishka. Exactly 400 years after the death of the Buddha Kanishka became sovereign of all Jambudvīpa but he did not believe in Karma and he treated Buddhism with contumely. When he was out hunting in the wild country a white hare appeared the king gave chase and the hare suddenly disappeared at this place. Here among the trees the king discovered a cowherd boy with a small stupa three feet high he had made. What is this you have made? asked the king. The boy replied telling the Buddha's prophecy and informing

¹ Fo kuo chi ch 12 Kao seng chuan ch 2 3

² See 'Fo mie tu hou kuan lien sung ching (No 124), Lien hua mien ching ch 2 (No 465)

Kanishka that he was the king of the prophecy, adding that he had come to set in motion the fulfilment of the prophecy. With this the king was greatly pleased, he straightway became a Buddhist and proceeded to accomplish the prediction. Trusting to his own great merits he set about building a great tope round the site of the boy's small tope which was to be concealed and suppressed by the great tope. But as the latter rose in height the small tope always topped it by three feet. The king's tope was one and a half *li* in circuit at the base which was 150 feet high in five stages and the tope had reached the height of 100 feet. The boy's tope was now suppressed and the king was greatly pleased. He completed his tope by the addition of twenty-five gilt copper disks in tiers, and having deposited a *ko* of relics inside he proceeded to offer solemn worship. But the small tope appeared with one half of it out sideways under the south-east corner of the great base. The king now lost patience and threw the thing up. So [the small tope] remained as it was (i.e. did not all come through the wall) with one half of it visible in the stone base below the second stage, and another small tope took its place at the original site. Seeing all this the king became alarmed as he was evidently contending with supernatural powers so he confessed his error and made submission. These two topes were still in existence and were resorted to for cures by people afflicted with diseases. South of the stone steps on the east side of the Great Tope were two sculptured topes, one three and the other five feet high, which were miniatures of the Great Tope. There were also two images of the Buddha, one four and the other six feet high, representing him seated cross-legged under the Bodhi Tree. When the sun shone on them these images were of a dazzling gold colour, and in the shade their stone was of a dark violet colour. The stone had been gnawed by gold-coloured ants so as to have the appearance of carving and the insertion of gold sand completed the images. On the south face of the ascent to the Great Tope was a painting of the Buddha sixteen feet high with two heads from one body. Our pilgrim narrates the legend connected with this very curious picture as he learned it at the place.

Above 100 paces to the south-east of the Great Tope was a white stone standing image of Buddha eighteen feet high facing north which wrought miracles, and was seen by night to circumsimulate the Great Tope. On either side of the latter were above 100 small topes close together. The Buddha images were adorned in the perfection of art. Strange perfumes were perceived and unusual sounds heard [at the Great Tope], and divine and human genii might be seen performing *gradakshu* around it. The Buddha predicted that when this tope had been

seven times burned and seven times rebuilt his religion would come to an end. The Records of former ages stated that the tope had already been erected and destroyed three times. When Yuan chuang arrived he found there had been another burning and the work of rebuilding was still in progress.

The description of the origin and structure of the Kanishka Tope in this passage is not very full or clear, and the interpretation here given differs in some important points from Juhen's rendering. There are, however, other accounts of this unique building which may help to supplement our author's narrative. The white hare which appeared to Kanishka and led him to the fated spot was the agent of Indra, so also was the herd boy who had made the small tope. Or rather the boy was Indra himself, and as the builder and the material were not of this world the tope could not be like the common buildings of its class. One authority describes it as being made of cow dung, but when an unbeliever pressed it to try, the hollow which he made with his fingers could not be filled up, and remained to testify to the miraculous character of the tope.¹

According to our pilgrim Kanishka's Tope was 400 feet high with a superstructure of gilt copper disks, the base being in five stages and 150 feet in height. Juhen makes the words of the text mean that each of the five stages was 150 feet high, but this is not in the original and does not agree with the context. Then the passage which tells of the miracle of the small tope coming out half way through the wall of the Great Tope is thus rendered by Juhen—'Quand il (i.e. the king) eut achevé cette construction il vit le petit *stoupa*, qui se trouvait au bas de l'angle sud est du grand, s'élever à côté et le dépasser de moitié. But the text does not place the small tope at the south east corner of the great one, and the king is described as building it "autour de l'endroit où était le petit *stoupa*.' Then the words *pang ch u ch'i pan* (梵, 出

¹ The Hsi yü chih quoted in Fa yüan chü lin c/ 38

It 斗) lit "side put out its half" cannot possibly be made to mean "s'clever à côté et le dépasser de moitié." This rendering moreover spoils the story which tells us that the King had finished his tope and was pleased with his success in enclosing the small tope when the latter was seen to thrust itself half through the stone wall of his tope. Then we learn that on seeing this "the king's mind was ruffled and he threw the thing up." The Chinese for this clause is *wang t'ing pu ping pien chu-chih chi* (王心不平便即擲去) and Julien translates "Le roi en éprouva une vive contrariété et ordonna sur le champ de l'abattre." Here the word *ordonna* is a bad interpolation and the term *chih chi* has been misunderstood. It means as usually to *give up, renounce, abandon*. The king had built his great relic tope but he could not carry out the ambitious design he had to *win* by his power the small tope which unknown to him, was the work of the god Indra so he wanted to abandon the whole affair. In the *Ping chih* the king is wrongly represented as *putting aside (chih-chi)* the small tope when proceeding to build his own. At the time of Yuan chuangs visit the small tope half out through the wall still remained in that position and the second small tope was to be seen at the original site of the first one. The position he assigns to his second small tope does not agree with the statement that Kamishka enclosed the site of the original small tope within the inclosure of his Great Tope. Perhaps the small tope appearing half way out through the wall of the great one may have been a sculpture in alto-relievo in the latter. Mr Simpson in the XIVth Vol of the *Journal of the R A S* has described such sculptured topes and given us a sketch of one.

Yuan chuangs account of the Great Tope and the little one as related with it from the beginning agrees in the main with Fakhien's account but does not much resemble the descriptions in other works. We must remember, however, that what he records is largely derived from others, while his predecessors saw the Great Tope in the splendour of

its perfect condition. One account represents the base of the Tope as 30 (for 300) feet in height, above this was a structure of polished and sculptured stone in five storeys then a structure of carved wood about 120 feet high then came the roof on which was erected a spire bearing fifteen gilt disks. Sung yun, like Yüan chüang, makes the height of the main building to be 400 feet, above this Sung-yun saw an iron pillar 300 feet high supporting thirteen tiers of gilt disks (lit gold basins). He makes the total height 700 feet while others make it 550 632 800, and 1000 feet. One of the names by which the tope was known was the 'Thousand Foot Tope' (百丈佛圖). It was also called the *Chio li* (雀離) Tope. This term *Chio li* we have seen was applied to the pair of viharas at Kuchih (Kutzü), and it is used to designate other viharas and topes. If the name were always written as above we could regard it as a native term meaning "piebald, brown and yellow", *chio* denoting a sparrow and *li* an oniole. But the characters *vi* and the word is expressly said to be foreign and to mean *striped* or *chequered* in two or more colours. This sense would suit the Great Tope with its dark coloured stone variegated by yellow tracings. It is apparently this building which is called in a Buddhist work the "Earth and Stone Tope". This will recall to the reader the very interesting general description of the topes of this region given in the *Amara Antiqua*, a description which also illustrates our pilgrim's account of the Great Tope.¹

In a Vinaya treatise the prediction of the building of this tope is made by the Buddha not to Ananda but to the Vajrapāṇi Pusa. The Buddha going about with this Pusa from place to place in 'North India' came to the hamlet of the *Ho shu lo* (渴樹羅), that is, the Kharjura or wild date tree. Here the two sat down, and Buddha, pointing to a small boy making a mud tope at a little distance, told the Pusa that on that spot Kanishka would erect the tope to be called by his name.²

¹ Wei shu l c, Ka lan chi l c. Ar. Ant. p. 56

² Saz Vin Yao shih ch. 9

The description in the Records goes on—

To the west of the Great Tope was an old monastery built by Kanishka, its upper storeys and many terraces were connected by passages to invite eminent Brethren and give distinction to illustrious merit, and although the buildings were in ruins they could be said to be of rare art. There were still in the monastery a few Brethren all Hinayanists. From the time it was built it had yielded occasionally extraordinary men and the arhats and sastra makers by their pure conduct and perfect virtue were still an active influence.

This old monastery is apparently the 'Kanik caitya' of Alberuni the 'vihara of Purushavar' built by king Kanik. It was also the "Kanishka mahā vihara" of Kittoe's inscription, 'where the best of teachers were to be found and which was famous for the quietism of its frequenters'. Within the modern city of Peshawar is an old building called the Ghor Khattri (the Gurh Katrī of Baber) and known also as the Caravanserai (or the Serai). This was once a Buddhist monastery 'with numerous cells'. Does it represent the great Kanishka vihara?

In the third tier of high halls of the Kanishka vihara was the chamber once occupied by the Venerable *Po li ssu fo* (Parsva) it was in ruins but was marked off. This Parsva was originally a brahmin teacher and he remained such until he was eighty years old. Then he became converted to Buddhism and received ordination. The city boys hereupon jeered at him as an old and feeble man and reproached him with wishing to lead an idle life unable to fulfill the duties of a monk in practising absorbed meditation and reciting the sacred Scriptures. Stung by these reproaches the old man withdrew into seclusion and made a vow not to lay his side on his mat until he had mastered the canon and had attained full spiritual perfection and powers. At the end of three years he had completely succeeded and people out of respect called him *Reverend Side* (or *Ribs*) because he had not laid his *side* on his mat for so long a time.

The *Po li ssu fo* (Parsva) of this passage is called in other works *Po she* (波舍) which may be for *Passo* the Pali form of *Pārśva*.¹ As this word means *side* it is translated into Chinese by *Hsie* (脇) which also means

¹ *Pi po sha lun* or *Vibhasha sastra ch 1* (No 1279)

the city boys jeering at him in consequence. We do read in a work already cited that when Parśva was on his way to Mid India the boys at one town made fun of him for wearing shoes, and carried these off from him.

On the east side of Parśvas chamber was the old house in which *Shih ch in* (世親) *Pusa* (Vasubandhu) composed the *A-pi ta mo-lu shi lun* (Abhidharmakosa śāstra) and posterity in reverential remembrance had set a mark on the old house.

As Yuan chuang has told us, Vasubandhu was a native of this country, having been born in Purushapur. His father's name was Kausika and his mother's Bilindī, and he was the second of three brothers all named Vasubandhu. The eldest became celebrated as the great Buddhist teacher Asanga, the youngest was called Bihndibhava from his mother's name and the middle one remained Vasubandhu simply. This last following the example of his elder brother became a Buddhist monk, and was at first an adherent of the Vaibhāshikas of the Sarvastivādin School.¹

The Abhidharmakosa-śāstra, or "Disquisition on the Treasury of Buddhist Philosophy", mentioned here, originated with 600 aphorisms in verse composed by Vasubandhu as a Sarvastivādin Vaibhāshika. These were sent by the author from Ayodhyā to the Kashmir Vaibhāshikas who were greatly pleased with them. But as the aphorisms were very terse and hard to understand, the Brethren requested the author to expand them into a readable form. Vasubandhu in the meantime had become attached to the Sautrantikas, and when he expanded his aphorisms into a prose treatise he criticised some of the doctrines of the Kashmir Vaibhāshikas from the point of view of a Sautrantika. This book also was written in Ayodhyā in the reign of Vikramaditya or his son Baladitya. It was regarded by the Vaibhāshikas of Kashmir as hostile to them, and it was refuted by the learned Sanghabhadra

¹ Ta shing pai fa ming men lun (No 1213) Inta, Po su pan ton (Vasubandhu) fa shi chuan (No 1463), Was S 240

who composed two treatises against it and in defence of the *Vaiśhāṣikās*. But *Vasubandhu's* treatise continued to have a great reputation and it was held in esteem by the adherents of both "Vehicles". Several commentaries were written on it in Sanskrit, and it was twice translated into Chinese, the first translation being by the great Indian Buddhist *Paramārtha*, and the second by our pilgrim. In this treatise the author does not shew any hostility to the *Vaiśhāṣikās*, and he frankly acknowledges his indebtedness to them¹.

The *Vasubandhu* of this passage, who will meet us again, is not to be confounded with the Buddhist of the same name who is given as the 21st of the Patriarchs of the Buddhist Church.

About fifty paces south from *Vasubandhu's* house was the second tier of high halls, here the śāstra master *Mo nu ho la fa* (末笈呂利他) (*Manoratha*) composed a "*vaiśhaṣa lun*". This Master made his auspicious advent within the 1000 years after the Buddha's decease. In youth he was studious and clever of speech. His fame reached far and clericals and laymen put their faith in him. At that time the power of *Vikramaditya* king of *Srāvastī* was widely extended. On the day on which he reduced the Indias to submission he distributed five lakhs of gold coins among the destitute and desolate. The Treasurer fearing that the king would empty the Treasury remonstrated with him to the following effect—Your Majesty's dread influence extends to various peoples and the lowest creatures. I request that an additional five lakhs of gold coins be distributed among the poor from all quarters. The Treasury being thus exhausted new taxes and duties will have to be imposed. This unlimited taxation will produce disaffection, so Your Majesty will have gratitude for your bounty but Your Ministers will have to bear insulting reproaches. The king replied that giving to the needy from the surplus of public accumulation was not a lavish expenditure of public money on himself and gave the additional five lakhs in largesse to the poor. On a future occasion the king while out hunting lost trace of a wild boar and rewarded the peasant who put him on the track with a lakh of gold coins. *Manoratha* had once paid his barber a like sum for shaving his

¹ See *Abhi ku she(kosa) lun* (No 1267) and *Abhi kosa shih lun* (No 1269) *Abhi kosa lun pen sung* (No 1240)

head, and the State annalist had made a record of the circumstance. This fact had wounded the king's pride, and he desired to bring public shame on Manoratha. To effect this he called together 100 learned and eminent non-Buddhists to meet Manoratha in discussion. The subject selected for discussion was the nature of the sense-perceptions about which, the king said, there was such confusion among the various systems that one had no theory in which to put faith. Manoratha had silenced 99 of his opponents and was proceeding to play with the last man on the subject, as he announced it, of "fire and smoke." Hereupon the king and the Non-Buddhists exclaimed that he was wrong in the order of stating his subject for it was a law that smoke preceded fire. Manoratha, disgusted at not being able to get a hearing, bit his tongue, sent an account of the circumstances to his disciple Vasubandhu, and died. Vikramaditya lost his kingdom, and was succeeded by a king who shewed respect to men of eminence. Then Vasubandhu solicitous for his Master's good name came to this place, induced the king to summon to another discussion the former antagonists of Manoratha, and defeated them all in argument.

The name of the great Buddhist master here called *Mo-nu-lo-ha-t'a*, and translated by Yuan-chuang *Ju-yi* (如意) or "As you will", has been restored by me as Manoratha. Julien here as in the *Vie* having the B reading *Mo-no-ho-li* (利)-*t'a* restores the name as Manorhita. This seems to be a word of his own invention, but it has been adopted by the P. W., and by subsequent writers on our pilgrim's narrative. The Chinese characters of Julien's text, however, cannot be taken to represent this word, and they might stand for a word like Manoriddha. This would perhaps suit Yuan-chuang's rendering, and also the Tibetan term *Yid-on*. But Manoratha is the name given by Burnouf from the *Abhidharma-kośa-vyākhyā*, by Paramārtha, who translates it by *Hsin-guan* or "Mental desire", and by Schiefner in his translation of *Tāranātha*.¹ But the Tibetan books make the bearer of the name to be a native of South India and a contemporary of Nāgasena. This Manoratha is not to be regarded as the same

¹ Bur. Int. p. 567; *Life of Vasubandhu* (No. 1463); *Tār. S.* 3, 298.

person as the Manor or Manura who is represented as the 21st (or 22^d) Patriarch

Yuan-chuang here ascribes to Manoratha the composition of a *Vibhasha lun*, that is an expository Buddhistic treatise Julien very naturally took this term to be the name of a particular treatise which he calls the "*Vibhāsha śāstra*" There is a learned and curious work in the Canon with the name "*Vibhāsha-lun*", the authorship of which is ascribed to *Shi-to pan-ni* (尸陀 拏 尼) restored by Julien as "*Siddhapani*", and by some to *Katyāyana putra*, but not to Manoratha¹ Nor is this last the author of the treatise bearing the name "*Vibhāsha-vinaya*", or of any other work in the sacred Canon

According to Yuan-chuang Manoratha flourished (*lit.* was seen to profit, 利見 a phrase from the *Yih-Ching*) within 1000 years after the decease of the Buddha This, taking the Chinese reckoning, would place the date of the śāstra-master before A D 150

The pilgrim relates of *Vikramāditya* that "on the day on which he reduced the Indias to submission he distributed five lakhs of gold coins"—For these words the Chinese is *shih-ch'ên-chu-In-tu-jih-yi-wu-yih-chin-ch'ien-chou lei* (使臣諸印度日以五億金錢周給) Julien, who instead of *chu*, the reading of the A, C, and D texts, had *yi* (億) of the B text, translates—"Quand un de ses envoyes arrivait dans (un royaume de) l'Inde, il distribuait chaque jour cinq cent mille pièces d'or pour secourir les pauvres, les orphelins et les hommes sans famille" This is very absurd and is not in the text The first character here *shih* is not needed, and is not in the D text, and the meaning seems to be very clear that, on the day on which India became subject to him, the king distributed five lakhs of gold coins among his own needy and desolate Then the narrative makes the Treasurer try to frighten the king by proposing that he should distribute another lakh, among the poor from all quarters, thereby

¹ Bun No 1279 and 收 9 of Jap Reprint

exhausting the Treasury and causing oppressive taxation. The Treasurer's speech which is rather absurd, seems to be clearly expressed, but Julien does not seem to have understood its meaning. A little farther on we have the reasons alleged by the king for summoning the non-Buddhists and Buddhists to a public debate. He said "he wanted to set right seeing and hearing and study (lit. travel in) the real objects of the senses' (欲收覓此塵諸見聞) the diverse theories on sense perceptions having led to confusion and uncertainty. The king's language refers to the great controversies about the senses and their objects and the word he uses for the latter, *chung* (塵) is that employed in Yuan chuang's translation of the Abhidharmakośa lun. There were great differences of opinion among the rival schools as to the relations between the senses and their respective objects. Thus, for example as to sight it was discussed whether it was the eye or the mind which saw, and whether the "true realm" of sight was colour or form. For the purpose at least of suppressing Manoiatha, the philosophers at the debate were agreed on the point that smoke should precede fire.

From the Kanishka Monastery Yuan chuang went north-east above 30 *li* crossing a large river to the city which he calls *Pu se ka lo fa ti* (Pushkaravati). This was about fourteen or fifteen *li* in circuit, was well peopled and the wards were connected by passages. Outside the west gate of the city was a Deva Temple with a marvel working image of the Deva. To the east of the city was an Asoka tope on the spot where the Four Past Buddhas had preached. The Buddhist sages who in old times came from Mid India to this district and taught mortals were very numerous. It was here that Vasumitra composed his *Chung shih fen Abhidharma lun*. Four or five *li* north of the city was an old monastery in ruins and with only a few Brethren who were all Hinayanists. In it Dharmatrata composed the *Tsa abhidharma lun*.

The Pushkaravati of this passage, which the Life makes to be 100 *li* from the Kanishka Monastery, is evidently the *Fo sha fu* of the *Ka lan chi* and the Pukaravati of other works and it is supposed to be represented by the modern Hashtnagar. Here according to our text Vasu

mitra composed his "*Chung shih fen* (衆事分) *Abhidharma-lun*" or "*Abhidharma prakāśana pada śāstra*" It is worthy of note that Yuan chuang who is sparing in his references to his predecessors, uses here the translations of the title of this work given by Gunabhadra and Bodhiyaśa, the first translators of the treatise For his own version Yuan chuang used a more correct translation of the title "*Abhidharma p'in lei tsu* (品類足) *lun*"¹ Yuan chuang here ascribes to Dharmatrata the authorship of a work which he calls "*Tsa abhidharma lun*" But no treatise with this name is known to the collections of Buddhist scriptures, and it is perhaps a mistake for '*Tsa abhidharma hsin* (訖)-*lun*', there is in the Canon a work with this name and it is ascribed to Dharmatrata (or Dharmataia) as author²

Beside the monastery was an Asoka tope some hundreds of feet high the carved wood and engraved stone of which seemed to be the work of strangers Here Sakyā Buddha in his Pusa stage was born 1000 times as a king and in each birth gave his eyes in charity A little to the east of this were two stone topes one erected by Brahma and one by Indra which still stood out high although the foundations had sunk At the distance of 50 li to the north west of these was a tope at the place where the Buddha converted the *Kuei tzu mu* or Mother of Demons and forbade her to kill human beings The people of the country worshipped this Demon mother and prayed to her for offspring

The word "thousand" in the statement here about the thousand gifts of his eyes by the Bodhisattva in as many previous existences as a king is perhaps a mistake Describing the commemorating tope our author tells us that the *tiao mu wen shih poh yi jen kung* (彫木文石頗異人工) These words seem to have the meaning given to them above but they have also been taken to mean 'the carved wood and engraved stone are superhuman work' Julien's translation, which is the tope "est fait en bois sculpté et en pierres veinées, les ouvriers y ont déployé un art extraordinaire" seems to be far wrong

The *Kuei tzu mu* or 'Mother of Demon children' of this passage is evidently the goddess whom I ching iden

tifies with the Ha-li-ti (Hārītī) of the Sarvāstivādin Vidyā.¹ This goddess, in the time of the Buddha, was a Yakṣini living near Rājagṛha, and married to a Yaksha of Gandhāra. Her name was *Huan-hsi* (Nandī?) or "Joy", and she was supposed to be a guardian deity to the people of Magadhā. But as the result of a spiteful wish in a previous life she took to stealing and eating the children of Rājagṛha. When the people found that their goddess was secretly robbing them of their offspring to feed herself and her 500 sons, they changed her name to Hariti or Thief. On the petition of the victims the Buddha undertook to put an end to the Yakṣini's cannibal mode of life.² In order to convert her he had her youngest and favourite son, in one account called Pingala, in his alms-bowl, and gave him up to the mother on her promise to renounce cannibalism and become a lay member of his communion. Then to provide for the subsistence of the mother and her numerous offspring the Buddha ordained that in all monasteries food should be set out for them every morning. In return for this service the Yakṣini and her sons were to become and continue guardians of the Buddhist sacred buildings. The Sar. Vin. does not make any mention of Hārītī undertaking to answer the prayers of barren women for children, but in one of the sutras the Kuei-tzū-mu agrees to comply with the Buddha's request in this matter.³ I-chung tells us that the name Kuei-tzū-mu was used by the Chinese before they had the story of Hārītī, and a goddess of children with that name is still worshipped by Chinese women. She is com-

¹ Nan hai ch'i kuei, ch. 1 and Takakusu p. 37.

² Sar. Vin. Tsa shih (No. 1121) ch. 31.

³ See the "Kuei tzu mu ching" (No. 759) where the scene is laid in the 不 𠵿 country, Tsa pao tsang ching (No. 1329) ch. 9 where the baby is Pin ka lo (Pingala) and the name of the country is not given, Tsa a han ching, ch. 49 where the scene is in Magadhā and the demon mother's baby is *Pi lêng ka*. See also Waddell's 'Buddhism of Tibet' p. 99, and Chi Fo-so-shuo shên chou-ching, last page (No. 447).

monly represented by a standing image with a baby in her arms and two or three children below her knees as described by Ichung. As the word *hwei* has only unpleasant associations ever since the Tang period the Chinese have occasionally substituted for it in the name of this goddess the word for *nine*, calling her *Kiu tzu mu* 'Mother of nine (that is, many) sons'.

Above 50 li north from the scene of the conversion of the Kuei tzu mu was another tope. This marked the place at which the Pusa in his birth as Sama while gathering fruit as food for his blind parents was accidentally shot by a poisoned arrow aimed by the king at a deer of which he was in pursuit. The perfect sincerity of the Pusa's conduct moved the spiritual powers and Indra provided a remedy which restored the son to life.

It will be remembered that Brahminical literature has a similar story about Krishna. The Jataka is a well known one and is related in several books¹.

From the Samaka (or Sama) Tope a journey of above 200 li south east brought the pilgrim to the city called *Po lu s'a* (Palusha). To the north of this city was a tope to mark the place at which the Pusa in his birth as Prince *Su ta na* (Sudana) bade adieu on being sent into exile for having given the elephant of the king his father to a brahmin. At the side of this tope was a monastery with above fifty Brethren all adherents of the Small Vehicle. Here the Master of Sastras Isvara composed the Abhidharma-ming chung lun.

The Palusha of this passage was apparently about 100 li to the south east of Pushkaravati. Cunningham has proposed to identify it with the modern Palo dheri which is about forty miles from Pushkaravati or Hasht nagar. As it is also however apparently about forty miles south east from the Samaka tope Palo dheri may correspond to the site of Palusha.

The name Sudana of the text is explained in a note as meaning 'having good teeth', but this as has been pointed out by others is evidently wrong. Better renderings are

¹ See Wilkins Hind Myth p 188 209 Jataka Vol VI p 71
P u sa san tzu chung (No 216) Lau tu chi chung c/ 5 (No 143)

Shan-yu and *Shan-shih* (善與 or 施), both meaning liberal or generous. As Sudana is apparently an epithet for the prince whose name was Viśvantara (Wessantara), so *Shan ya* or "Good-teeth" may have been the name of the much prized white elephant which the prince gave away to the brahmin from the hostile country.

As to the *Abhidharma* treatise which Yuan-chuang here ascribes to the sastia master Īsvara no work with the name "*Abhidharma-ming-chêng-lun*" seems to be known to the Buddhist canon. Instead of the *ming chêng* (明證) of the ordinary texts the D text has *ming têng* (燈), making the name to be the "*Abhidharma Shining lamp śāstra*".

Outside the east gate of the Palusha city was a monastery with above 50 Brethren all Mahayanists. At it was an Asoka tope on the spot at which the brahmin who had begged the son and daughter of the Prince Sudana from him on the *Tan to lo ka* (Dantaloka) mountain, sold the children. Above twenty li north east from Palusha was the Dantaloka mountain on which was an Asoka tope at the place where Prince Sudana lodged. Near it was the tope where the Prince having given his son and daughter to the Brahmin the latter beat the children until their blood ran to the ground, this blood dyed the spot and the vegetation still retained a reddish hue. In the cliff was the cave in which the Prince and his wife practised samadhi. Near this was the hut in which the old rishi lived, above 100 li north from it beyond a small hill was a mountain, on the south of this was a monastery with a few Brethren who were Mahayanists, beside this was an Asoka tope where the rishi *Tu-chio* (Ekasringa) once lived, this rishi was led astray by a lustful woman and lost his superhuman faculties whereupon the lustful woman rode on his shoulders into the city.

In their renderings of the text of the above passage the translators have made a serious mistranslation which injures the narrative. They make the pilgrim state that the tope at the east gate of Palusha was at the place where *Prince Sudana sold his two children to a brahmin*. But the Prince never did anything like this, and the Chinese states clearly that it was the brahmin who sold the children after having begged them from their father on the mountain. This agrees with the context and with

the story in the Scriptures According to the latter the brahmin on the instigation of his wife went to the Danta mountain to beg the Prince to give him the son and daughter of whom the Prince and his wife were very fond, and by his urgent entreaty he prevailed on the father, in the absence of the mother, to give up the children to serve in his household But when the Brahmin brought them to his home his clever wife saw they were of superior birth, and refused to keep them as slaves Hereupon the brahmin took them away to sell and against his will under the secret influence of Indra, he found himself with the children at the royal city, where they fell into the hands of the king their grandfather This happy incident led to the recall of the all giving Prince and his faithful devoted consort

Then the stone hut on the Danta mountain was not merely one which had been inhabited by "a rishi" It was the hut supposed to have been once occupied by the old rishi Akshuta in Chinese transcription *A chu t'e*, the Acchuta of Fausboll This was the aged hermit who welcomed the banished Prince and family on their coming to stay on his mountain

The name of this mountain is given by Yuan chuáng as *Tan-to lo la* which Julien restored as Dantaloka, the restoration has been adopted by the P W, and by subsequent writers But the old and common form of the name in Chinese translations is *Tan t'eh* (檀特), and the original may have been Danda. The 'Mountain of punishment' would be an appropriate designation, and the suggestion is strengthened by the Tibetan rendering 'forest of penance' Our pilgrim places the mountain at a distance of above twenty *li* north east from Palusha, but instead of twenty we should probably read 2000 *li* as in the Fang chih All the legends represent the mountain of exile as being far away from any town or place of human habitation It was beyond the Chetiya country, or in Udyana or in Magadha In the Jataka it is called Vamkaparvata, and a Chinese authority ex-

plains *Tan-t'eh-shan* as meaning "the dark shady mountain (*yin-shan*)" ¹

In his remarks about the rishi whom he calls "Single-horn" (or *Ekaśringa*) our pilgrim is apparently following the "Jātaka of Rahula's mother". In this story, the scene of which is laid in the Benares country, the ascetic of mixed breed, human and cervine, is named Unicorn on account of the horn on his forehead. He has attained great power by his devotions and becoming offended he stops the rain. The king is told that in order to save his country from a prolonged drought he must find a means by which the rishi's devotions will be stopped. A very clever rich "lustful woman" comes forward and undertakes to seduce the saint. She takes 500 pretty girls with her, and by means of love potions, disguised wines, and strong love-making she overcomes the rishi and makes him fall into sin. Beguiling her lover-victim to the city of Benares she pretends on the way to be faint and the rishi carries her on his shoulders into the city ². In other versions of this curious wellknown legend the lady who woos and wins the simple, innocent, but very austere and all powerful, hermit is a good princess, the daughter of the king of the country. For her father's sake and at his request she undertakes the task of wiling the saint from his austerities and devotions. he is captivated, becomes the princess's lover, marries her and succeeds her father on the throne. In most versions of the story the saint to be seduced is called *Rishyaśringa*, the Pali *Isisinga*, the lady who leads him astray is *Śanta* in the Chinese translations and some other versions, but *Nalinī* or *Nalinikā* in other versions ³. In the "Jātaka of Rahula's

¹ *Lau tu chi chung*, ch 2. *T'ai tzü su ta na ching* (No 254) in this work the elephant's name is *Su tan yen*, Hardy M. B. p 118, Jat. Vol VI last jataka where the mountain is *Vamhaja* abbato, Feer's *Chaddanta jataka* p 81, Schiefner *Tib Tales* p 207.

² *Ta chih tu lun*, ch 17, cf *Hsing chi chung*, ch 16.

³ *Kshemendra's Kalpalata* in J. B. T. S. Vol. 1. P II, p 1, here the rishi is *Ekaśringa*, the lady is the Princess *Nalinī*, and the two

mother" the rishi and his tempter are respectively the Bodhisattva and his wife Yasodhara, but in the Jataka it is the wise father of the rishi who is the Bodhisattva, and the rishi and the lady are a certain bhikshu and his former wife

Above 50 li to the north east of Palusha (Julen's Varusha?) was a great mountain which had a likeness (or image) of Mahesvara's spouse Bhima-devi of dark blue stone. According to local accounts this was a natural image of the goddess, it exhibited prodigies and was a great resort of devotees from all parts of India to true believers who after fasting seven days prayed to her the goddess sometimes shewed herself and answered prayers. At the foot of the mountain was a temple to Mahesvara deva in which the Ash smearing "Tirthukas" performed much worship.

Going south east from the Bhimala (or Bhima) Temple 150 li you come to *Wu to-la han tu* (or *cha*) city twenty li in circuit and having the Indus on its south side, its inhabitants were flourishing and in it were collected valuable rarities from various regions.

A journey of above 20 li north west from *Wu to-la han tu* brought one to the *P'o* (or *S/a*) *lo tu lo* city the birth place of the rishi Panini who composed a *sheng ming lun* (Treatise on Etymology). At the beginning of antiquity our author continues there was a very luxuriant vocabulary. Then at the end of the kalpa when the world was desolate and void the immortals became incarnate to guide mankind and from this written documents came into existence the flow of which in after times became a flood. As opportunity arose Brahma and Indra produced models. The rishis of the various systems formed each his own vocabulary these were emulously followed by their successors and students applied themselves in vain to acquire a knowledge of their systems. When the life of man was a century Panini appeared of intuitive knowledge and great erudition he sorrowed over the existing irregularities and desired to make systematic exclusions and selections. In his studious excursions he met Siva to whom he unfolded his purpose, the god approved and promised help. So the rishi applied himself earnestly to selecting from the stock of words and formed an

are the Bodhisattva and Yasodhara of after births cf App^x I of the same Vol. Mahavastu T III p 143 Bud Lit Nep p 63 Takakusu in Hansen Zashi Vol xiii No 1, Jat Vol v p 123 where the lady is Nalinika, p 152 where she is the apsara Alambusa.

Etymology in 1000 stanzas each of 32 words, this exhausted modern and ancient times and took in all the written language. The author presented his treatise to the king who prized it highly and decreed that it should be used throughout the country, he also offered a prize of 1000 gold coins for every one who could repeat the whole work. The treatise was transmitted from master to disciple and had great vogue hence the brahmins of this city are studious scholars and great investigators.

The pilgrim goes on to tell a story which he heard on the spot. Within the city of *P o* (or *Sha-lo tu lo*) was a tope where an arhat had converted a disciple of Pāṇini. Five hundred years after the Buddha's decease a great arhat from Kashmir in his travels as an apostle arrived at this place. Here he saw a brahmin teacher chastising a young pupil. In reply to the arhat's question the teacher said he beat the boy for not making progress in Etymology. The arhat smiled pleasantly and in explanation said—You must have heard of the treatise on Etymology made by the rishi Pāṇini and given by him to the world for its instruction. The brahmin replied—"He was a native of this city, his disciples admire his excellences and his image is still here." To this the arhat answered—This boy of yours is that rishi. He added that in his previous existence Pāṇini had devoted all his energies to worldly learning but that from some good Karma he was now the teacher's son. He then told the teacher the story of the 500 Bats who long ago allowed themselves to be burned to death in a decayed tree through delight in hearing a man read from the *Abhidharma*. These 500 Bats came into the world in recent times as human beings became arhats and formed the Council summoned by King Kanishka and the Reverend Pūrva in Kashmir which drew up the *Vibhasha* treatises. The arhat added that he was an unworthy one of the Five Hundred and he advised the teacher to allow his dear son to enter the Buddhist church. Then the arhat disappeared in a marvellous manner and the teacher became a Buddhist and allowed his son to enter the Buddhist church, he became a devoted believer and at the time of the pilgrim his influence in the district was still a very real one.

The image or likeness of *Bhūmidevī* here mentioned was apparently a dark blue rock in the mountain supposed to have a resemblance to that goddess. Julien however, understood the passage to mean that there was a statue and he makes the author state that the people said—'la statue de cette deesse s'est formee toute seule'. But what the people said was that 'this goddess' likeness (or

image) was a natural (or self-existing) one"—此天像者自然有也 (in B text 形 instead of 也)

Then the Bhīmālī of the next paragraph in the B text, the others having Bhīma, is taken by Julien to be a mistake for Bhīma. But the texts are quite correct, Bhīma and Bhīmālī being names of Śiva. There is no mention in the text of a temple to Bhīmā, but there is a temple to Śiva at the foot of the mountain and from it the journey begins.

The name of the city here transcribed *Wu to-la han-t'u* (or *ch'a*) (烏鐸迦漢葵 or 芥) is tentatively restored by Julien as Uda khanda, but the characters give us a word much liker Uda ka khaṇḍa. In two texts of the Life the name of the city is given as *Wu to-la han-p'eng* (蓬). Saint Martin and Cunningham consider that this city was on the site of the later Ohind (or Waihand), but the identification seems to be doubtful.

In the next paragraph we have Panini's city called in Julien's text *Po lo tu lo*. As the great Grammarian is supposed to have been a native of Śālitura Julien proposed to regard *Po* here as a mistake for *Sh*, in this he is probably right as the A text here has *Sha*. All the other texts, however, have *Po* (𑖣 or 𑖢) and one does not like to regard them all as wrong. Still for the present it is better to regard *Sha* (𑖣) as the correct reading, the name transcribed being Śālitura. It is remarkable that neither in the part of the Life which tells of the pilgrim's visit to Gandhara nor in the Fang chih have we any mention of Panini and his birth place. But in the third *chuan* (Book) of the Life we read of "the rishi Panini of the *Po lo men tu lo* city of Gandhara in North India" (北印度健駄羅國婆羅門親羅邑波膩尼仙). These words are in Julien's rendering "dans le royaume de Gandhara, de l'Inde du Nord, un Brahmane nommé le Rishi *Po m ni* (Pāṇini) de la ville de *Tou lo* (Śālatoula)". Here the learned translator must have known that he was doing violence to the text and that the word *Po lo men* or Brāhmaṇa could not possibly be severed from

tu lo and made to apply to Panini who here as in the *Records*, is styled a *rishi*. It is perhaps possible that the *men* in the text is a copyist's interpolation and that the original reading was *P o lo tu lo* as in the common texts of the *Records*.

When our author writes of the Immortals, the devas of long life becoming incarnate he is referring to the restoration of our world after its last destruction. The first beings to occupy the new earth were the time expired devas of one of the Heavens and they did not become incarnate in the ordinary sense, they came to earth with the radiance and beauty of gods and with the aerial ways of celestial beings.¹ But they did not come to teach men and it was a very long time after their descent when human beings first began to have a written language.

The reader of this passage about Panini will observe that the pilgrim gives the date of King Kanishka as 500 years after Buddha's decease. This is not in accordance with the common Chinese chronology of Buddhism which makes the death of the Buddha to have taken place in the ninth century B C.

¹ Ta lu tan chung ch 6

CHAPTER VII

CHUAN (BOOK) III.

UDYĀNA TO KASHMIR

From Udalakhanda city a journey north over hills and across rivers (or valleys) for above 600 *li* brought the traveller to the *Wu chang na* country. This country was above 5000 *li* in circuit, hill and defile followed each other closely and the sources of river courses and marshes were united. The yield of the cultivated land was not good, grapes were abundant, but there was little sugar cane, the country produced gold and iron (in the D text, gold coins) and saffron, there were dense woods and fruits and flowers were luxuriant. The climate was temperate with regular winds and rain. The people were pusillanimous and deceitful, they were fond of learning but not as a study, and they made the acquisition of magical formulæ their occupation. Their clothing was chiefly of *pai tieh* (calico). Their spoken language was different from but bore much resemblance to that of India and the rules of their written language were in a rather unsettled state.

A note added to our text tells us that *Wu-chang na* means "park", the country having once been the park of a king, (viz Asoka, according to the 'Life'). The *Wu-chang-na* of the narrative is perhaps to be read *Udana* and it stands for *Udyāna* which means "a park". Other forms of the name in Chinese works are *Wu-t'u* or *-ch'a* (荼 or 茶) perhaps for *Uda*¹ *Wu-ch'ang* (長) used by Fa-hsien, *Wu-ch'ang* (場) in the *Ka-lan-chi*, *Wu-tien* (or *yun*)-*nan*g (壇 or 壇) used by Shih-hu of the later Sung period, and

¹ Tung chien-kang mu, Tang Kao Tsung Tsung-chang 2^d y
P

the unusual form *Wu-sun ch'ang* (五 山) But the territory denoted by these varieties of name does not always correspond to the *Wu-chang na* of our text In some Chinese translations this country is vaguely denominated "*Yue-ti* (Getæ) Country"¹ There may possibly have been a native name like *Uda* from which the Sanskrit form *Udyāna* and the Pali *Uyyana* were formed Our pilgrim's *Udyāna*, according to Cunningham, comprised the present districts of Pangkora, Bijāwar, Swāt, and Bunir² The country is represented by Yuan-chuang as not yielding good crops, and this is not in agreement with the accounts in other works which describe it as a well watered region yielding good crops of rice and wheat³

The people of *Udyana* held Buddhism in high esteem and were reverential believers in the Mahayana Along the two sides of the *Su-p'o-fa-su-tu* river there had formerly been 1400 Monasteries but many of these were now in ruins, and once there had been 18000 Brethren but these had gradually decreased until only a few remained, these were all Mahayanists who occupied themselves with silent meditation, they were clever at reciting their books without penetrating their deep meaning, they lived strictly according to their rules and were specially expert in magical exorcisms There were five redactions (*pu*) of the Vinaya taught, viz the *Fa-mi* (Dharmagupta), the *Hua-ti* (Mahāsāṃhika), the *Yin-kuang* (Kāśyāpīya), the *Shuo-yi-ch'ie-yu* (Sārvāstivādin) and the *Ta-chung* (Mahāsaṅghika) Vinaya Of Deva Temples there were above ten and the various sectarians lived pellmell

The river here called *Su-p'o-fa-su-tu* according to the B, C, and D texts is the Subhāvastu, the Swāt of modern geography In the old A text the reading is *Su-p'o-su-tu* representing a form like Svastu The name Swāt is applied not only to the river but also to the district through which it flows

The five redactions of the Vinaya which the pilgrim found in force in this country are the more or less hete-

¹ E g in the *Ta-chih-tu-lun ch' 9*

² A. G. I. p. 81 For recent observations on this country see H. A. Deane in J. R. A. S. for 1896 p. 635

³ Wei Shu, ch. 102

rodov, editions ascribed to five disciples of Upagupta. Instead of Mahāsaṅghika we find Vatsīputra, but this name is supposed to be used as an equivalent for Mahāsaṅghika. This five-fold Vinaya is often mentioned in Buddhist treatises and another enumeration of it is Sthavira, Dharmagupta, Mahīśasika, Kāśyapiya, and Sarvāstivādin.¹ I-ching, who gives a fourfold division of the Vinayas, says he never heard of the five-fold division in India; his four chief schools (or redactions) are the Sthavira, the Sarvāstivādin, the Mahāsaṅghika, and the Sammatīya.² It will be noticed that according to our pilgrim all the Buddhists in Udyāna were Mahāyānists and yet followed the Vinaya of the Hinayānists, Fa-hsien represents the Brethren here as Hinayānists.³

This country had four or five strong cities of which *Meng-lie* (or *la*) *li* was chiefly used as the seat of government. This city was 16 or 17 *li* in circuit and had a flourishing population.

The *Meng-lie-li* of the text may represent a word like Mangkil. Cunningham has identified the city with the modern Manglaur (or Minglaur), a large and important village at the foot of one of the north-west spurs of the Dosirri mountain between Swat and Boner, and Major Deane thinks that the identity is undoubted.

Four or five *li* to the east of the capital was a tope of very many miracles on the spot where the Pusa in his birth as the Patiently enduring rishi was dismembered by the *Ka li* king.

Juhen understood the words of this passage, 爲羯利王割截肢體, to mean that the rishi cut off his own limbs on behalf of the king. But the word *wei* (爲) here, as often, is used to convert the following active verb into a passive one and has the sense of "was by", so used the word is said to be in the *ch'u-shêng* and to be equivalent to *pei* (被) in the sense of "by". The "Patiently-enduring rishi" is the Kshānti or Kshānti-vādin (Pali, Khantivādi),

¹ Fang yi-ming-yi, ch. 4 Sec. 41, Seng-chi lu, ch. 40.

² Nan hai-ch'i kuei Int., and Takakusu Int. p. XXI, and p. 7.

³ Fo-kuo-chi, ch. 8.

or Kshānti-bala or Kshāntivat of the Buddhist scriptures and called Kundakakumāra in the Jataka. The "*Ka-li king*" is the king named Kali or the king of the country named Kali or Kalinga. The word Kshānti means "patient endurance", and Kali is interpreted as meaning "fighting", or "quarreling". We find the story of this wicked king Kali hacking to pieces the good hermit who was endeavouring to make himself perfect in patient endurance told in several Buddhist books with some variations of detail. It forms the Kshāntibala chapter of the *Hsien-yu-ching* or "Sutra of the Wise and the Foolish",¹ and it is the "Kshāntivādi Jātaka" in the Pali Jataka.² In these books the scene of the action is laid in the vicinity of Benares and in some of the other accounts the name of the locality is not given. The Sutra of the Wise and the Foolish calls the king Kali, but the Jataka and some other authorities call him Kalābu, in Chinese transcription *Ka lan-fu* (迦藍浮). The wording of our author's text here recalls the reference to the story in the 14th chapter of the *Chin-lang-ching* or *Vajracchedikā*, and there the Sanskrit text leaves no doubt as to the meaning of the words. In the Jātaka the king orders his executioner to flog and mutilate the patient rishi and the king personally only administers a parting kick. But in other versions it is the king himself who in his wrath hacks off the various limbs of the Kshānti rishi who is not in all versions the Pusa destined to become Gautama Buddha.

A note to the B text here tells us that there is a gap after the words of this paragraph, but the note is not in the other texts, and there is no reason to suppose that anything has fallen out. It is to be observed that neither Fa-hsien nor Sung-yun makes any mention of the Kshānti rishi tope in this country.

From Mangkil, the pilgrim tells us a journey north east of about 250 li brought him to a mountain in which was the *A po-*

¹ *Hsien yu ching ch 2 Der Weise u d Thor, S 60*

² *Jātaka, Vol III, p 39*

lo lo (Apalala) Dragon Spring the source of the Swat river. This river flows away from its source south west it keeps its coldness through spring and summer and morning and evening (in one text every evening) the flying spray rainbow tinted sheds brightness on all sides. The dragon of the spring in the time of Kasyapa Buddha was a man named *King* (or *Keng*) ki (Gang? Julien) able by his magical exorcisms to control dragons and prevent them from sending violent rains. For his services in this way the inhabitants had given him fixed yearly contributions of grain. But the contributions fell off and the magician enraged at the defaulters expressed a wish to be in his next birth a wicked malicious dragon and in consequence he was reborn as the dragon of this spring the white water from which ruined the crops. Sakyamuni Buddha came to this district to convert the dragon on this occasion the Vajrapani god struck the cliff with his mace and the dragon becoming terrified took refuge in Buddhism. On his admission to the church the Buddha forbade him to injure the crops and the dragon asked to be allowed to have these once every twelve years for his maintenance, to this petition Buddha compassionately assented. And so once every twelve years the country has the "white water infliction".

Major Deane says that the distance and direction here given by our pilgrim "bring us exactly to K'alam, the point at which the Utrot and Laspur (Ushu in our maps) streams meet. The junction of these is the present head of the Swat river."

The word Apalala means *without straw*, and it is rendered in Chinese by *Wu tao kan* (無稻竿) meaning "without ricestraw". Another translation is *Wu miao* (無苗) that is "without sprouting grain". The name seems to have been given to the dragon of the Swat on account of the ravages among the crops made by the floods of that river. We read in the Sarvata Vinaya² that the Buddha on a certain occasion near the end of his career, took with him his attendant Yaksha named *Chin kang-shou* or Vajrapani and went through the air to the country

¹ For this Jataka see *Fo shuo pu sa pen hsing ching ch 2* (No 43^o) *Ta chih tu lun ch 14* *Lau tu ching ch 5* (No 143) *Hsien chie ching ch 4* (No 403) In the *Ch u yao ching ch 23* (No 1321) the story is told of Siddhartha while preparing to become Buddha.

² *Sar Vin Yao shih ch 9*

beyond the Indus to subdue and convert this dragon. When Buddha arrived at the palace of the dragon the latter became greatly enraged and caused fierce showers of rain and hail to descend on the Buddha. Determined to put the dragon in terror Buddha caused the Yāksha to smite the adjoining mountain with his adamant club whereupon a vast fragment of the mountain fell into the dragon's tank. At the same time Buddha caused a magic fire to appear all around the place. Then the dragon frightened and helpless came to Buddha's feet, gave in his submission and was converted with all his family. It is worthy of note that in this Vinaya story the dragon king is required by Buddha to take up his abode in Magadha. This dragon is also called *A p'o lo* and we find the Spring which was his residence located in the "Yue shi (Getæ) country of North India" or simply in "North India". The "*A yu wang chuan*" places the home of this dragon in Udyana but the "*A yu wang ching*" and the Divyavadanā do not mention his country. In a Vinaya treatise, apparently from Pali sources, we read of a dragon called Alapalu in Kapin (Kashmir) who is overcome and converted by the great arhat Madhyantika (Majjhantika) who had come as an apostle to introduce Buddhism.¹ This legend seems to be a version of the story here narrated Majjhantika taking the place of the Buddha.

Julien in his translation of the description of the Swat river here seems to have followed the text of the Life rather than that of his author. The latter does not state that an arm of the river flows to the south west, it is as the passage and context show, the river itself which so flows. Nor does Yuan chuang state that "*dans ce pays il gèle au printemps et en été*" for that would be at variance with his former statement about the climate of the country, it is the river which is cold through spring and summer. Moreover, although *fei hsue* does mean "flying snow", it also means "flying spray", and that is its

¹ Shan chien lu vibhasha ch. 2 (No. 1125)

meaning here There was apparently a cascade near the source of the river, and the morning and evening (or, the evening) sun daily shone on the dense white spray tossed up in the air, and made it bright and beautiful with the colours of the rainbow

The "white water" of this district is referred to by other authorities Thus Alberuni¹ quotes Jivaśarman to the effect that "in the country of Svāt, opposite the district of Kiri(?) there is a valley in which 53 streams unite, during the 26th and 27th days of the month Bhādrapadā the water of this valley becomes white, in consequence of Mahadeva's washing in it, as people believe". According to the Fang-chih it was the rains which the dragon sent that made the water plague

Above 30 *li* south west from the Apalala dragon spring and on the north bank of the river was a large flat stone with the Buddha's footprints, these, the size of which varied with the religious merit of the measurer, were left by the Buddha when he was going away after having converted the dragon, a building had been erected over them and people from far and near came to make offerings Above 30 *li* farther down the river was the rock on which Buddha had washed his robe, the lines of the robe being still distinct like carving

Above 400 *li* south from Mangkil was the *Hi lo* mountain, the stream of the mountain valley flows west, as you go up it eastward flowers and fruits of various kinds cover the water course and climb the steeps, the peaks and precipices are hard to pass, and the ravines wind and curve, you may hear the sound of loud talking or the echo of musical strains square stones like couches (in D, *topes*) made by art form an unbroken series over the gully It was here that Ju lai once gave up his life for the hearing of a half stanza of doctrine

The stone with the marvellous footprints of the Buddha and the rock on which he had washed his robe and spread it out to dry are described in the *Fo kuo-chi* and the *Ka lin-chi*, and the accounts in these works should be compared with our pilgrim's narrative For the words "the streams of the gorge flow west and as you go up them eastward", Julien has "*Les eaux de la vallée se*

¹ Alberuni Vol II, p 182

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¹ Alberuni Vol. II, p. 182

partagent à l'ouest et remontent ensuite du côté de l'orient" This cannot, however, be taken as the meaning of the text which is 谷水西派逆流東上 lit "the water of the mountain-valley goes off to the west, going up east against the course of the stream —" The pilgrim is probably here describing a part of his journey from Uda-kahantu to the capital of Udyana. In the last sentence of the present passage we have reference to a curious Jataka. In a very far off time when there was no Buddha in the world the Pusa was a brahmin student living on the Himavat, he knew all secular lore, but had never heard the teaching of Buddhism. He expressed his great desire to learn at any cost some of the doctrines of that religion, and Indra, wishing to prove the sincerity of the brahmin's desire, disguised himself as a hideous rakshasa, came to the Himavat, and appeared before the Brahmin. On behalf of the latter he uttered half of the stanza beginning with the words "all things are impermanent", the brahmin was delighted and asked for the other half. But the rakshasa refused to utter this until the brahmin promised to give himself up as food to the rakshasa in reward for the recital. When the second half of the stanza was uttered the brahmin threw himself from a tree towards the rakshasa, but the latter in his form as Indra saved the devotee's life¹.

Above 200 li south from Mangkil at the side of a mountain was the *Mo ha fa na* (Mahavana or Great Wood) monastery. Ju lai long ago as Pusa was the *Sa fo ta chih* king, to avoid his enemy he gave up his kingdom and going into obscurity came to this place, here he met a mendicant brahmin and having nothing whatever to give the brahmin he made the latter bind him and deliver him up to the king his enemy the reward offered for the exiled king being the latter's alms to the brahmin.

The Monastery of the Great Wood according to Major Deane "was apparently on the western, or north western, slopes of the present Mahaban. Numerous ruins exist on

¹ See the *Ta pan nie pan ching* ch 14 (No 118), *Hsuan chi pai yuan ching* ch 4 (No 1324), *Ta chih tu lun* ch 12.

the lower slopes and also on the higher portions of Mahaban' But Dr Stein thinks that Mahaban is too far away, and that the Mahāvāna monastery was at Pinjhotai at Sunigram¹ In the B and D texts the name of the good king is given as *Sa fo ta chih* (薩縛達之), but instead of *chih* the other texts have *ta* repeated The name is interpreted as meaning "All giving", and the original was either Sarvadā, as in some places or Sarvadada as in other passages Our pilgrim's version of this pretty Jataka agrees with the story in the Buddhist books except that in these the locality is not given²

North west from the Mahāvāna monastery and 30 or 40 li down the mountain was the *Mo yu* (麼愉) monastery with a tope above 100 feet high and at the side of it a large square stone on which were the Buddha's footprints These were left when the Buddha treading on the stone sent forth a lot of ray of light which illumined the Mahāvāna Monastery while he related his former births to men and devas At the base of the tope was a stone of a pale yellow colour yielding a constant exudation it was here that the Buddha as Pusa bearing Buddhist doctrine wrote the sacred text with a splinter from one of his bones

A note added to the text here tells us that *Mo yu* is in Chinese *lou* a general name for all kinds of pulse Julien reads the second character of the word as *su* and regards the transcription as representing the Sanskrit word *Masura* which means *lentils* But all my texts have *Mo-yu* and this agrees with the Glossary The native interpretation may be a mistake and the Chinese characters may represent *Mayu* for *Mayukha* a word which means *brightness a ray of light* This suggestion is strengthened by the statement which our pilgrim makes about the Buddha here shedding a bright light which lit up the Mahāvāna Monastery The incident of the Buddha in one of his previous births taking a splinter of one of his bones to write out a Buddhist text is taken from a Jataka mentioned in several of the Chinese writings In some

¹ Ind Ant Vol xxviii pp 14 58

² See Ta chih tu lun ch 12 and 33

versions of the story the P'usa's name is *At* (or *Lo*)-*fa* (愛 or 樂法), "Loving or Rejoicing in dharma"¹, but in other versions he is *Yu to lo* (or *Yu-to li*), and in the 'Der Weise u d Thor' he is *Udpala*². As the price of hearing a sacred text of Buddhism the P'usa agreed to write the text with a pencil made from one of his bones on paper made from his skin and with his blood for ink. The person who made this hard bargain was a brahmin or the Devil disguised as such.

Sixty or seventy *li* to the west of the *Mo yu* Monastery was an Asoka tope to mark the spot at which the P'usa in his birth as *Shih pi la* (*Sivika*) king sliced his body to ransom a pigeon from a hawk.

A note added to the Chinese text here tells us that *Shih-pi la*, the correct form for the old *Shih-p'i*, means "giving", but we are not bound to accept either the correction or the interpretation. The story of the Rajah of *Sivi* (or Raja *Sivi*) saving a pigeon chased by a hawk, and then cutting off portions of his own flesh to weigh against the pigeon, and finally putting his skeleton in the scales in order to have an equivalent in weight for the bird which still remained heavier, is told or referred to in many Buddhist books. It is found also in old Brahminical literature and Dasaratha is reminded by his queen how

"His flesh and blood the truthful Saivya gave
And fed the hawk a suppliant dove to save"

According to the common versions of the story the hawk was Indra bent on proving or tempting the king, and the pigeon is in some versions Agni, in others Visvalarma, or a "frontier king".³ In the "Liu-tu chi-ching" the king's name is given as Sarvadā. In the "Hsien-yu-ching", and in other works, the capital of *Sivi* is *Dipavati*

¹ Ta chih tu lun ch 16 and 49

² Hsien yu ching, ch 1, Der Weise u d T, S 15, P u s a p e n h a n g c h i n g ch 3 where the P'usa is the rishi *Yu to li* (優多梨)

³ Liu tu chi ching, ch 1

or Derapati, the Devawarta of "Der Weise u d Thor" 1 Fa hsien makes the scene of this deed of charity to have been in the *So ho to* that is probably Svāt, country, to the south of his Udyāna 2 In some works Sivi is a personal name, in others the name of a people or country, and there is a king Sivi among the supposed ancestors of Gautama Buddha 3 Yuan chuang apparently understood his Sivika to be a personal name or epithet

Above 200 li north west from the Pigeon ransom Tope and in the *Shan ni lo she* valley was the *Sa pao sha ti* monastery with a tope above 80 feet high It was here that Ju lai in his existence as Indra encountered a year of famine with pestilence In order to save the people's lives the Pusa as Indra changed himself into a great serpent lying dead in the valley, the starving and distressed in response to a voice from the void cut from his body pieces of flesh which were at once replaced and all who ate were satisfied and cured Near this Monastery was the *Su mo* great tope where Ju lai in his Indra life in a time of plague changed himself into a *Su mo* serpent and all who ate his flesh were cured By the side of the cliff at the north of the *Shan ni lo she* valley was a tope with powers of healing It was here that Ju lai in his existence as a king of peacocks pecked the rock and caused water to flow for the refreshment of his flock, there was a spring and the traces of the peacock's feet were to be seen on the rock

The *Shan ni lo she* of this passage may be as Julien suggests for Saniraja, and the *Sa pao sha ti* for the word Sarpaushadhi This latter means 'serpent medicine', and this agrees with the rendering in the Chinese note to the ordinary texts The D edition gives the translation as "Earth Medicine", but this is probably the result of some copyist's error The *Su mo* of the text is perhaps for Soma although Julien restores it as Suma and translates *Su mo she* by 'water serpent'

Major Deane supposes our pilgrims Saniraja to be 'the Adinza valley entered from Swat at Chakdara' In this

1 Hsien yu ching ch 1, Der Weise u d T S 16

2 Fo kuo chi ch 9

3 Dip p 132

Chakdara district, he tells us, there is a large tope which is still known to some of the people by the name Suma.

In a Buddhist sutra¹ we read of the Bodhisattva in his birth as Indra becoming a great reptile called *Jen-liang-chung* (仁良蟲) interpreted as meaning "the reptile benevolent and of healing efficacy." When the Kuru country was afflicted with plague Indra caused a voice from the void to call the people to cut from his (that is, the reptile's) body, and eat the flesh, and be cured. The people flocked to the carcase, and eagerly cut pieces of its flesh which never suffered diminution new flesh replacing the pieces cut away. A similar story is found in other books, but the inexhaustible benevolent animal is usually a large fish.²

About sixty li south west from Mangkai city and on the east side of a great river was the tope erected by Uttarasena king of this country to enclose his share of the relics of the Buddha's body and near this was the tope which that king built to mark the spot at which his large white elephant bearing the precious relics had suddenly died and become a rock.

There does not seem to be any mention either of Udyana or of Uttarasena in the various accounts given in the various Nirvana treatises of the division of the Buddha's relics. But other authorities relate how a female elephant named *Mo tu* (or *Mata*) bearing relics of Buddha to a north country died suddenly on the way, was afterwards reborn as a human creature and became an arhat with an enormous appetite.³ Yuan chuang also tells in another

¹ *Ta pao-chi chung*, ch 8 (*Bun No 23(3)*).

² *Hsien yu ching* ch 7, *Der Weise u d T*, S 215, *P u sa pên-hsing ching*, ch 3.

³ *Abhi. ta vib*, ch 42. Major Deane tells us that on the Swat River "between Ghaligai and Shankardar, the natives of the country describe the remains of a stupa as still standing, and this is undoubtedly that referred to by the Pilgrim—for the Pilgrim records next a large rock on the bank of the great river, shaped like an elephant. This rock is a conspicuous landmark existing near the river, about twelve miles from the village of Thana and near Ghaligai", op c p 660.

place of an aśhat of Kashmīr who in a previous existence had been a king's elephant, and had been given to a monk to carry some Buddhist scriptures. When the elephant died he was reborn as a human being, entered the Buddhist church, and rose to be an aśhat.

West from Mangkīl above 50 *li* and across a large river was the *Lo hi ta ka* (Rohitaka or Red) tope above 50 feet high erected by Asoka. At this place Ju lai in his birth as *Tzu li* (Compassion strength) king drew blood from his body to feed five Yakshas.

The *Tzu li*, "whose strength is compassion" of this passage is the king Mañtra bala (or Maitribala) of certain Jatakas. This king, who lived in an unknown past and in an undefined country, had administered his kingdom so perfectly that the Yakshas in it were reduced to starvation as they could not obtain human blood and life on which to subsist. At last five of these creatures came to the king and laid their sad case before him. The king in utter pity made five incisions in his body and refreshed the Yakshas with his blood. Having done this he taught them the way of mercy to creatures, and induced them to take the vows of good life as Buddhists. Very long afterwards when the king came into the world and became Buddha these five Yakshas were born as human creatures and became Ajnata Kaundinya and his four companions, the first disciples of the Buddha.¹

In this passage "Rohitaka tope" probably denotes "the tope of Rohitaka." This was the name of a town or village and in an interesting passage of the Sarvata Vinaya it is placed in India south of Kashmīr.² It was here that Buddha while lodged and entertained by a good Buddhist Yaksha gave his disciples leave to eat grapes purified by fire and to drink grape syrup. The grapes offered to the disciples on this occasion are said to have been brought

¹ *Pusa pen sheng man lun ch* 3 where the *Pusa* is king *Tzu li* (慈力) *Hsien yu ching ch* 2 where the king's name is *Mi ka lo po lo* but rendered in Chinese by *Tzu li*, *Jatakamala* (Kern) S 41

² *Sar Vin Yao shih ch* 9

from Kashmir by the Yakshas, and the fruit was new to the disciples. Major Deane thinks that the village of the tope is that now called Hazara and adds that the natives describe the tope as still existing¹

Above thirty *li* to the north east of Mangkil was the *O pu to* (Adbhuta or Marvellous) stone tope above forty feet high. The Buddha had preached and taught here and after his departure the tope emerged from the ground and became an object of worship. West from this stone tope across a great river thirty or forty *li* was a Buddhist temple (*ching she*) in which was an image of the Bodhisattva Avalokitesvara (Kuan tzu tsai Pusa) of mysterious power with miraculous manifestations it was an object of pilgrimage for Buddhists and its worship was continuous.

North west from this image 140 or 150 *li* was the *Lan po lu* mountain on which was a dragon lake above 30 *li* in circuit. The pilgrim then tells the story of the exiled Sakya from Kapilavastu who came to this place married the dragon's daughter assassinated the king of Udyana and reigned in his stead, this king was the father of Uttarasena. After this we have the story of the mother of king Uttarasena being converted by the Buddha and regaining her sight.

The marvellous stone tope of this passage, Major Deane tells us, is said to be still in existence, but this may be doubted. Above 30 *li* west from this tope was the Buddhist temple which Deane following B wrongly calls "Vihara", and about 140 *li* north west from this we have the *Lan po lu* mountain. 'This measurement', Major Deane writes, 'brings us exactly to the head of the Aushuri valley, which drains into the Panjkora near Darora. How the Pilgrim got his distance over several valleys and intervening high spurs it is difficult to conjecture. But on the hill to which it brings us there is found a large lake, more than a mile in length.'

Our pilgrim represents the conversion of Uttarasena's mother and the restoration of her sight as having occurred at Mangkil. In the Sarvata Vinaya the conversion of the queen mother is stated to have occurred in a city called

¹ Op c p 660

Tao lu lu-ko (稻穀樓閣) or "Grain loft" which was apparently in this region ¹

TA-LI-LO (DAREL)

The narrative in the Records now proceeds

North east from Mangkil over hills and across gulleys ascending the Indus by hazardous paths through gloomy gorges crossing bridges of ropes or iron chains across bridges spanning precipices or climbing by means of pegs for steps a journey of above 1000 *li* brings you to the *Ta li lo* valley the old seat of government of Udyana The district yields much gold and saffron In the valley is a great Monastery by the side of which is a carved wooden image of *Tzu shih Pusa* (Maitreya Bodhi sattu) of a brilliant golden hue and of miraculous powers, it is above 100 feet high, it was the work of the arhat Madhyantika who by his supernatural power thrice bore the artist to Tushita Heaven to study Maitreya's beautiful characteristics the spread of Buddhism eastwards dates from the existence of this image.

It is worthy of note that the Life represents Yün-chuang as only learning of the road to *Ta li lo*, whereas the text of the Records seems to imply that he actually travelled from Mangkil to that place One text of the Life also makes the distance between the two places to be only ten *li*, but in the D text it is 1000 *li* as in the Records The *Ta li lo* valley is apparently, as Cunningham suggests, the *To li* country of Fa hsien and the modern Darel, it may be also the *Ta la to* (Dard²) of a Buddhist śastra ² The great wooden image of Maitreya in this district was a very celebrated one and it is strange to find our pilgrim making it 100 feet high while Fa hsien makes it only 80 feet high.³

PO LU LO (BOLOR)

Proceeding east from *Ta li lo* across mountains and gulleys going up the Indus by flying bridges over precipices a journey of above 500 *li* brought you to the *Po lu lo* country This was

¹ Sar Vin I c

² A. G. I p 82, Abhi ta vib ch 79 (*Ta la to* 達刺陀)

³ Fo kuo chi, ch 6

above 4000 *li* in circuit and was situated in the Great Snow Mountains it was long from east to west and narrow from north to south, it produced wheat and pulse and gold and silver. The people were rich the climate was cold, the inhabitants were rude and ugly in appearance they wore woollen clothes their writing was very like that of India but their spoken language was peculiar. There were some hundreds of Buddhist Monasteries and some thousands of Brethren who were without definite learning and were very defective in their observance of the rules of their Order.

The *Po lu lo* of this passage is apparently, as has been suggested by others the Bolor of later writers and the modern Balti or Little Tibet. But it may be doubted whether the pilgrim's account was derived from a personal visit it may have been all obtained at Mangkil. According to the Fang chih the traveller after a journey of 500 *li* east from Darel crossed the Oxus east into the *Po lu lo* country. The narrative in the Life does not make any mention of this country.

TAKSHAŚILA

From this (i.e. Bolor) the pilgrim returned to Utakahantu (Uḍaka Khanda) city went south across the Indus here three or four *li* broad and flowing south west (in B and C but in D south) pure and clear to the Takshasilā country. This was above 2000 *li* in circuit its capital being above ten *li* in circuit. The chiefs were in a state of open feud the royal family being extinguished, the country had formerly been subject to Kapis but now it was a dependency of Kashmir, it had a fertile soil and bore good crops with flowing streams and luxuriant vegetation the climate was genial and the people who were plucky were adherents of Buddhism. Although the Monasteries were numerous many of them were desolate and the Brethren who were very few were all Mahāyanists.

The *Ta-cha sha lo* (Takshasilā or Taviḷa) of this passage seems to be described by the pilgrim as adjacent to Gandhāra but Fa hsiên makes Takshasilā to be seven days' journey east from his Gandhāra.¹ These two travellers treat Takshasilā as a district separate from Gandhāra,

¹ Fo kuo chi ch 11

but in several of the Buddhist books it appears as a part or city of that country Fa hsien explains the name as meaning "cut off head" as if the second part of the word were *sira*. Another author translates it by *sio-shih* (削石) or "severed rock",¹ and another by *ts'o-shih* (鑿石) or "chiseled rock",² it is rendered by "rock-cave",³ and interpreted as meaning "the Rock of the Takkas". The Pali form of the name is Takkasīla. In very old times, it is fabled, a city called Bhadrāsīla was on the site afterwards occupied by Takshasīla,⁴ and in modern times the latter has also had the name Mālikāla.⁵ Baron Hugel thought that the site of the old city corresponded with that of the present Rawal-Pindi,⁶ but Cunningham places the site of Takshasīla at the modern Shahdheri, a mile to the north-east of Kālaka-serai. There seems to be much in favour of Cunningham's identification which has been generally accepted.⁷ According to the statements in the Buddhist books Takshasīlā was at one time an important trading centre, and a great seat of learning specially famed for its medical teachers.⁸ It formed a part of Asoka's empire, and that sovereign, and after him his son, were viceroys appointed to reside at it before they succeeded to the throne.⁹

Above 70 li to the north west of the capital was the tank of the *I lo po ta lo* (Elipattra) Dragon king above 100 paces in circuit, its limpid water beautiful with various coloured lotuses. This dragon was the bhikshu who in the time of Kasyapa

¹ Hsing chi ching, ch 38

² A yu wang ching, ch 10

³ E g in A yu-wang hsi hua mu yin yuan ching (Bun No 1367)
It is sometimes doubtful whether the name "Rock cave" is applied to Takshasīla or to Gandhara

⁴ Bud Lat Nep p 310

⁵ Alberuni Vol 1, p 302

⁶ Travels in Kashmir and the Panjab p 230 et al

⁷ A G I p 104, McCrindle's Invasion of India by Alexander the Great p 342

⁸ Ta chuang yen lun ching, ch 8, 15

⁹ Divyāv p 371, A yu wang chuan, ch 1

Buddha destroyed an *I lo po ta lo* tree, hence when the natives are praying for rain or fine weather they have to go^o with a monk to the tank and when they have cracked their fingers and spoken the dragon fair they are sure to have their prayers answered

The story here alluded to of the very ancient Buddhist monk who was afterwards reborn as the Elapattra Dragon king is told with slight variations in several Buddhist books. The monk was a very pious good ascetic living in a lonely hermitage among Cardamon (Ela) plants or "Ela trees". He was much given to ecstatic meditation and on one occasion he remained absorbed in thought all the morning and until it was the afternoon. He then arose took his bowl and went in the usual manner into the town or village, to beg his daily food. The people seeing him beg for food out of hours, upbraided him and made disagreeable remarks about his violation of the rules of his Order. The monk became annoyed and irritated by these remarks and went back to his hermitage. Here he paced up and down as usual, but being in a bad temper he could not endure the touch of the leaves of the Ela (or "Ela trees"). So he tore them off and angrily strewed them on the ground. When the Buddha Kaśyapa came to remonstrate with him for injuring the plants, and tried to bring him to a proper frame of mind, the monk was rude to the Buddha and refused to take his reproof. For the two offences eating food in the afternoon and breaking off the Ela leaves (or scorning the Buddha's reproof for doing so) the monk was reborn as a Dragon king. In this form he had a monstrous, hideous, and distressing body with seven heads from each of which grew an "Ela tree", and so long was his body that it reached from Benares to Takshaśila, a distance of above 200 Yojanas. While the Buddha was at Benares this Elapattra dragon came thither seeking for the explanation of an incomprehensible verse and having assumed the form of a universal sovereign he presented himself in the congregation of the Buddha. The latter, however, caused the dragon to resume his proper form, and then informed him

that at the advent of Maitreya he would be released from the dragon existence. Elāpattra then undertook to lead a life of gentleness and mercy not doing harm to any creature¹. In all the Chinese transcriptions the name *Elā* (or *Ilā*)-pattra is given both to the tree which the bhikshu injured and to the dragon-king, but there does not seem to be any plant or tree with the name *Elā*-pattra. I-ching transcribes the name of the dragon *I-lo-po* as if for *Elapat*, and he uses a different transcription for the name of the great Treasure.

From the Dragon Tank Yuan chuang proceeded south east for above thirty *li* to a place between two ranges of hills where there was an Asoka tope above 100 feet high. This marked the spot at which, according to the Buddha's prediction, when Maitreya comes as Buddha one of the four great natural Treasures of valuables will be in existence.

The four great Treasures here alluded to are those of *Elāpattra* in Gandhāra, *Pānduka* in Mithila, *Piṅgala* in Kāśhā, and *Śāṅkha* in the Kāśi (Benares) country². According to some authorities it was at Savatthi that the Buddha made to Anāthapīṇḍaka the announcement of the existence of these four hidden Treasures to be revealed at the time when Maitreya comes to be Buddha, but other versions of the story differ.³ So also some accounts represent the Treasures as being already made use of by the people who every seventh year, on the seventh day of the seventh month, drew at will from the Treasures, which did not experience any diminution⁴. When Maitreya comes as Buddha the *Elāpattra*, *Pānduka*, and *Piṅgala* Treasures are to be transferred to that of *Śāṅkha*. In the *Tsêng yi-a han-chung* we find the terms *dragon* and

¹ *Fu kai chêng so chi chêng* (福蓋正所集經), ch. 11, *Sar Vin Ter shih*, ch. 21, J. B. T. S. Vol. II, P. 1, p. 2, *Rockhill Life* p. 46.

² See *Dīvyā* p. 61.

³ *Anāthapīṇḍaka hua-ch'i-tzū-chung* (No. 649), *Tsêng-yi-a-han chung*, ch. 49.

⁴ *Upasaka chie ching*, ch. 5 (No. 1088). See also *Sar Vin Yao-shih*, ch. 6.

dragon king applied to Elāpattra in connection with the Treasure at Takshaśila in Gandhāra but in the other accounts there is no reference to a dragon. Some think that Elāpattra was the name of a king but it was probably the name of the place afterwards extended to the Tank and the dragon of the Tank. It was undoubtedly this Elāpattra Treasure which our pilgrim here mentions as a sacred spot divinely protected and marked by a tope.

Above twelve *li* to the north of Takshaśila city the pilgrim continues was an Asoka tope which on Fast days sent forth a brilliant light accompanied by divine flowers and heavenly music. Yuan chuang learned at the place that within recent times a miracle had occurred in connection with this tope. A woman afflicted with a repulsive skin disease had come to it for purposes of worship finding the building in a very filthy state she set to work to cleanse it and having succeeded in this she presented flowers and incense. Thereupon her disease left her and she became a beautiful woman breathing a perfume of blue lotus. At the site of this tope Yuan chuang tells us the Pusa as Chandraprabha (Moon brightness) king cut off his own head as an act of charity and did this in 1000 similar births.

Fa hsien simply relates that the Pusa here once gave his head in charity to a man and adds that this act gave its name to the country, as if Takshaśira or "Severed head".¹ In another treatise it is the king of the *Kan yi* (乾夷) country who agrees to give his head to a wicked and importunate petitioner but when the latter draws his sword to cut off the king's head, a deity intervenes and saves the king's life.² In this Jataka the king is the Pusa and the cruel petitioner is Devadatta. This story is told with some variations in the "Divyavadāna Māla" where the king is Chandraprabha and his head is actually cut off by the petitioner.³ In one book we read of Prince Moon brightness (Chandraprabha) giving his blood and marrow to heal a poor distressed man.⁴ It is rather

¹ Fo-kuo chi 1 c

² Lau tu chi chung ch 1

³ Bud Lit. Nep p 310

⁴ Ta chih tu lun c/ 19

curious to find the story which Yuan-chuang here tells about the woman afflicted with a loathsome skin disease cleansing the sacred building and offering flowers and in consequence becoming healed and endowed with beauty and a sweet breath quoted in an Abhidharma-vibhāṣa-śāstra¹

Near the Head giving Tope, Yuan chuang relates, was an old ruinous Monastery occupied by a few Brethren. It was in this monastery that the Sautrantika Doctor in Buddhism by name *Kou mo lo lo to* (Kumārālabdha) once composed expository treatises

The name of this learned Buddhist Śāstra-master as given here is translated in a Chinese note by *Tung shou* (童受) or "Received from the Youth", that is from Kumāra, the god of war, the name being Kumārālabdha. In the Life the name is given as *Ku(Kou) mo lo to* and translated wrongly by "youth's life". Kumārālabdha, we learn from another part of the Records, was a native of this country, but he was taken by force to Kābandha where the king of the country gave him a splendid monastery in the old palace grounds. He was, we are told elsewhere, the founder of the Sautrāntika School, and he was celebrated over all the Buddhist world for his genius, his great learning, and his controversial abilities. He was one of the "Four Suns illuminating the world", the three others being Āśvaghoṣa, Deva, and Nāgarjuna². Kumārālabdha is mentioned by Tāiāntha as a Sautrāntika Master by the name Gzon-nu-len or "Youth obtained", but he seems to be little known in Buddhist literature and history³. He may perhaps be the great *Ku(Ku) mo lo to* who is the 18th (or 19th) in the list of Buddhist Patriarchs⁴.

On the north side of the south hill to the south east of the capital was a tope above 100 feet high erected by King Asoka

¹ Abhi ta vib, ch 114. Here Asoka had built a Chartya at the place where King Chandraprabha had given 1000 beads (his own head 1000 times)

² Ch 12, J Vol III p 213

³ Tur S 78

⁴ Fu fa tsang yin yuan chuan, ch 6 (No 1340)

on the spot where his son Prince *Ku lang na* (for *Ku ṇa lang*) or Kunala had his eyes torn out by the guile of his step mother, the blind came here to pray and many had their prayers answered by restoration of sight. Our pilgrim then proceeds to tell his version of the story of Kunala's career, of Asoka on the advice of his wicked second queen sending his son to govern Takshasila of the blinding of this prince there by the cruel deceitful action of this queen of the return of the prince and his princess to the king's palace and of the restoration of the prince's eyesight effected by the Buddhist arhat Ghosha.

Some versions of this pathetic story represent Asoka as sending his son to restore order in Takshasila on the advice of a Minister of state and without any interference on the part of Tishyaraksha the cruel, vindictive libidinous queen, and in some accounts the prince dies after his return home without having any miracle to restore his eyes. His name was Dharmavardhana and his father gave him the sobriquet Kunala because his eyes were small and beautiful, precisely like those of the Himalay bird with that name. The blinding of this pious and virtuous prince was the consequence of bad Karma wrought in a far past existence. He had blinded 500 deer, according to one story, or an arhat, according to another version, or he had taken the eyes out of a charity, according to the *Avadana kalpalata*. Ghosha, the name of the arhat who restored eyesight to Kunala, was also the name of a physician of this district who was celebrated as an oculist¹.

The Takshasila city and region were celebrated from old times, and we read of the king of the country who was contemporary with the Buddha coming to Rajagaha on the invitation of king Bimbisara to see Buddha. This king became a convert and was ordained, but he died by an unhappy accident before he could return to his kingdom. With reference to this country in later times we

¹ A yu wang chuan, ch 8, A yu wang hsi huan mu yin yuan ching (the Prince is sent on the advice of Yasa), Ta yu ching (法華經) where the story is like that told by Yuan chuang, Divyav p 416 Bar Int p 404 Bud Lit Nep p 61

have the following interesting passage in Cunningham's "Ancient Geography of India"—"At the time of Asoka's accession the wealth of Taxila is said to have amounted to 36 *lotis* or 360 millions of some unnamed coin, which, even if it was the silver *tangka*, or six pence, would have amounted to nine *crores* of rupees, or £ 9 000 000. It is probable, however, that the coin intended by the Indian writer was a gold one in which case the wealth of this city would have amounted to about 90 or 100 millions of pounds. I quote this statement as a proof of the great reputed wealth of Taxila within fifty years after Alexander's expedition" (p. 106). The whole of this statement is based on Burnouf's translation of a passage in the *Asokavadana* in the "Introduction à l'histoire du Bouddhisme Indien" (p. 373) which reads—'Le roi (i.e. Asoka) fit fabriquer quatre vingt quatre mille boîtes d'or, d'argent, de cristal et de lapis lazuli, puis il y fit enfermer les reliques. Il donna ensuite aux Yâchins et déposa entre leurs mains quatre vingt-quatre mille vases avec autant de bandelettes, les distribuant sur la terre tout entière jusqu'aux rivages de l'Océan, dans les villes inférieures, principales, et moyennes, où [la fortune des habitants] s'élevait à un koti [de Suvarnas]. Et il fit établir, pour chacune de ces villes, un édit de la Loi.'

En ce temps-là on comptait dans la ville Takchasil trente six *lotis* [de Suvarnas]. Les citoyens dirent au roi : 'Accorde nous trente six boîtes.' Le roi réfléchit qu'il ne le pouvait pas puisque les reliques devaient être distribuées. Voici donc le moyen qu'il employa. Il faut retrancher, dit-il, trente cinq *lotis*. Et il ajouta : 'Les villes qui dépasseront ce chiffre, comme celles qui ne l'atteindront pas n'auront rien.'

It will be observed that in this passage the words "la fortune des habitants" and "de Suvarnas" are introduced by the learned translator to supplement the language and complete the meaning of his author. But these words do not seem to be warranted by the Sanskrit original, which apparently refers to *inhabitants*, and not to *coins*. This

interpretation is supported by two out of the three Chinese translations, the third translation being apparently from a different text. The passage translated by Burnouf would thus mean something like the following—The king had 84 000 boxes made to hold Buddha's relics. These boxes he gave to Yakshas to distribute among all large, medium, and small towns having a *koti* of inhabitants. But the people of Takshasila said—We are thirty-six *kotis* in number and we want thirty six boxes. The king seeing he could not give a box for every *koti* of inhabitants in his dominions said to the Takshasilans—No you must knock off thirty five *kotis* for the rule is to be that a box is to be given only to those places which have exactly a *koti* of inhabitants neither more nor less.¹

According to one story the people of Takshasila accepted the king's conditions and received a box of relics. But from other accounts it is to be inferred that they did not obtain any of the relics. Neither Fa hsien nor our pilgrim refers to the presence in this country of one of the 84 000 boxes containing Buddha's relics distributed by Yakshas for Asoka.

SINHA PURA

From this (that is the neighbourhood of Takshasila) going south east across hills and valleys for above 700 *li* you come to the *Seng la pu lo* (Sinhapura) country, this was about 8000 *li* in circuit with the Indus on its west frontier. The capital fourteen or fifteen *li* in circuit rested on hills and was a natural fortress. The soil of the country was fertile the climate was cold the people were rude, bold and deceitful. There was no king and the country was a dependency of Kashmir.

The text of this paragraph by itself and taken in connection with what follows presents serious difficulties. Although the pilgrim seems to describe himself here as

¹ Divyā p. 381. In *A yu wang chuan ch* 1 and in *Tsa a han ching ch* 23 it is a matter of population, and in *A yu wang ching ch* 1 it is a question of money. The particular form of expression used seems to be susceptible of both these interpretations.

going south-east from Takshaśilā to Sīnhapura, yet a little further on he represents himself as returning from the latter to the north of the former. In the Life, at this part of Yuan chuang's journey, the D text makes him *hear* of (聞) Sīnhapura at Takshaśilā, but the other texts state that Sīnhapura was among (間) the hills and valleys 700 *li* south-east from Takshaśilā. In another passage of the Life Sīnhapura is placed about twenty-two days' journey from Takshaśilā and apparently to the east of that city, but the direction is not given.¹ If the rest of the narrative with which we are now concerned be correct it would seem that north-east should be substituted for south-east in the statement of the direction of Sīnhapura from Takshaśilā. We cannot imagine Yuan-chuang going 700 *li* (about 140 miles) south-east from Takshaśilā, then turning back to the north of that district, and setting out from it again south-eastwards. From the context here it seems to be clear that Yuan-chuang places Sīnhapura to the north of Takshaśilā rightly or wrongly. Moreover the "Fang-chih" which places Sīnhapura to the south-east of Takshaśilā, following the Records, yet makes the latter place to be south of the former.

Cunningham, in his "Ancient Geography of India", identifies the capital of Sinhapur with Ketīs "situated on the north side of the Salt Range, at 16 miles from Pind Dadan Khan, and 18 miles from Chakowal, but not more than 85 miles from Shih dheri or Taxila"² This identification, to which Cunningham did not adhere, has since been established by Dr. Stein to his own satisfaction and that of Dr. Bühler.³ It is true that distance from Taxila, extent of territory, situation of capital, and one or two other details do not tally, but such discrepancies are not insuperable difficulties to an enthusiastic Indian archaeologist.

¹ Ch. 5. The Tang Shuh (ch. 221) agrees with Yuan chuang in placing Sinhapura 700 *li* to the south east of the Taxila district.

² A. G. I. p. 121.

³ Trübners Or. Rec. No. 249 p. 6.

Near the south of the capital was an Asoka tope the beauty of which was impaired although its miraculous powers continued and beside it was a Buddhist monastery quite deserted. Forty or fifty li to the south east of the capital was a stone tope above 200 feet high built by Asoka. Here were also more than ten tanks large and small—"a scene of sunshine. The banks of these tanks were of carved stone representing various forms and strange kinds of creatures. The struggling water (that is the river which supplied the tanks) was a clear brawling current, dragons, fish and other watery tribes moved about in the cavernous depths, lotuses of the four colours covered the surface of the clear ponds, all kinds of fruit trees grew thick making one splendour of various hues and the brightness of the wood mixing with that of the tanks the place was truly a pleasure ground.

The words 'a scene of sunshine' in this passage are a quotation and in the original are *ying tai tso yu* (映臺左右) "a sunshine borne left and right." The meaning is that there was a continuous line of brightness along the sides of the tanks and the stream by which they were supplied. Juhen understood the passage to mean that the tanks surrounded the tope 'à gauche et à droite, d'une humide ceinture.' But this seems to be impossible and is not in the original. Our pilgrim saw (or was told) that the mountain stream formed a pool or tank in its course, flowed out from this and formed another, and so on, making above ten tanks, the stream all the way between the tanks being above ground in the daylight. The people had afterwards furnished these tanks with facings for their banks made of curiously carved stone.

Supposing Ketāś to be the modern representative of Sinhapura we may compare with Yuan chuang's account the description which Dr. Stein gives from personal observation of the scenery at Murti a few miles south east from Ketāś—"The bed of the Ketāś brook forms in the narrow and very picturesque Gamdhala valley a number of small tanks, and at a bend, where there are two large basins, stands the hill of Murti. From the top of the hill I heard distinctly the murmuring of the brook, which on leaving the chief tank forces its way between a number

of boulders Dense groups of trees, such as Huen Tsang describes, are reflected in the limpid waters of the tanks, which still swarm with fish" Dr Stein also saw at Ketas "two richly ornamented stone pillars which were stated to have come from Murti" "The sculptures on their capitals differ", he adds, "but are decidedly in the Jaina style, showing seated, naked male figures with garlands in their hands You will understand that they forcibly reminded me of Huen Tsang's "balustrades of different shapes and of strange character'" The words within inverted commas at the end of this paragraph are an incorrect quotation from Burnouf who puts "*balustrades*" in italics and within brackets to show that the word is the gloss which he adds to his text There is nothing whatever corresponding to the word in the Chinese

Our pilgrim continues his description and tells us that beside [the tope?] was a Buddhist monastery which had long been unoccupied Not far from the tope he says was the place at which the founder of the "White clothes sect having come to realize in thought the principles for which he had been seeking first preached his system the place being now marked by a memorial beside which a Deva Temple had been erected The disciples [of the founder of the White clothes sect] practise austerities persevering day and night without any relaxation The system which their founder preached Yuan chuang says was largely taken from the doctrines of the Buddhist canon He proceeded according to classes and made rules of orderly discipline, the great (i e senior) disciples are Bhikshus and the small ones are called Śramaneras, their rules of deportment and ritual observances are much like those of the Buddhist system, but they leave a little hair on the head and they go naked or if they wear clothes these have the peculiarity of being white X By these differences of detail they have gradually become quite distinct (viz from the Buddhists) The images of their "deva teacher" they have ventured to make like those of Buddha, with the difference as to clothing, the distinguishing marks being the same

From a careful study of all this passage and the preceding one about the Simhapur country and the objects of interest which it contained one feels very much inclined to believe that the pilgrim did not visit the place on this

occasion and that he obtained his information about it at Talshastla and elsewhere. What he tells us about the "white robed non Buddhists" *jai yi uai tao* (白衣外道) is very interesting but it is vague and unsatisfactory. This sect was evidently as has been pointed out by other the Śvetāmbaras a development of primitive Jainism. But who was the founder of it who attained spiritual enlightenment and began to preach his system in this region? The spot had a memorial of the event at the time of Yuan chuangs visit or as Julien translates—"Aujourd'hui on y voit une inscription. But this seems to be more than is in the original—*chin yu feng chi* (今有封記) which perhaps means only "there is now a memorial of the event set up. Beside this memorial there had been erected a Deva Temple. Julien adds—"Les sectaires qui le fréquentent but the Chinese has only *chi tu* (世徒) which means his disciples that is the followers of the founder of the sect. The pilgrim is telling us now of the Śvetāmbara and Digāmbara ascetics generally. Severe austerities were inculcated and practised by the Jains from their first appearance and wherever they lived. The constitution doctrines and outward observances of their religion with certain exceptions named had according to our pilgrim been appropriated from Buddhism. It is thus plain that Yuan chuang had been taught that Jainism as a system was later in origin than Buddhism and was mainly derived from the latter. His remarks on this subject appear very extraordinary when we remember that the Nirgrantha (or Jain) sect figures largely in the Buddhist canonical works. It was evidently a large and influential body in the time of Gautama Buddha who was an avowed opponent of the system and argued strongly against its teaching as to the efficacy of bodily austerities. As Yuan chuang must have known the Jains had their ritual code and their religious and philosophic creed and organisation at the time of the founder of Buddhism.

It should be noticed that our pilgrim does not make mention of a Jain establishment at Sinhapur or of any

inhabitants whatever in the neighbourhood of the tope. There were at the place a Buddhist monastery without Brethren and a Deva-Temple, but no Jain temple or monastery is mentioned. Thus Dr Stein's sculptures from Murti "decidedly in the Jaina style" and thus enabling him to find 'Hsuen Tsiang's long looked for Jaina temple' must wait for further developments. The Ketas district as described by Dr Stein seems to present some agreement with our pilgrim's Sinhapura in its natural scenery, having a stream, a series of tanks, and dense vegetation. But this does not amount to much, and as it is apparently the only point in which there is any resemblance, it is not enough for a basis of identification.

Our pilgrim proceeds to relate that from this (i.e. the Sinhapura district) he went back to the north confines of the Takshasila country, crossed the Indus and travelled south east going over a great rocky Pass. Here long ago the Prince Mahasattva gave up his body to feed a hungry tigress. About 140 paces from this was a stone tope at the spot to which Mahasattva pitying the wild beast's feeble state came, here piercing himself with a dry bamboo he gave his blood to the tigress and she after taking it ate the Prince, the soil and the vegetation of the spot had a red appearance as if blood dyed. Travellers suffering from the wild thorns of the place whether they are believers or sceptics are moved to pity.

This story of the compassionate Prince giving his body to save the lives of a starving tigress and her cubs is told with variations in several Buddhist books. The version which Yuan chuang apparently had before him was that given in the "Hsien yü ching" which agrees in the main with Schiefner's translation from the Tibetan.¹ According to the story there was once many kalpas before the time of Gautama Buddha a king of a great country the name of which is not given. But the name of the king was Maharatna (or Maharatha), and he had three sons the youngest of whom was called Mahasattva. This prince grew up to be good and gentle, and very compassionate.

¹ Hsien yü ching ch 1 Der Weise u d T S 21, Pu sa pên sheng man lun ch 1 Cf Bud. Lit. Nep p 247

to all creatures. It happened that one day he and his brothers were strolling among the hills when they saw near the foot of a precipice a tigress with two cubs. The tigress was reduced to a skeleton, and was so utterly famished with hunger that she was about to eat her young ones. Prince Mahāsattva, seeing this, left his brothers, and desirous of saving the animal's life, and the lives of her cubs, threw himself down the precipice, and then lay still for the tigress to eat him. But she was too weak and exhausted to take a bite out of his body. So he pricked himself with a sharp thorn and thus drew blood. By licking this blood the wild beast gained strength, and then she devoured the prince leaving only his bones. When his parents found these, they had them buried, and then raised a mound or *tope* at the grave. This Mahasattva was the Buddha in one of his numerous preparatory stages of existence as a Boddhisattva.

Other versions of the story give the number of the tigress' cubs as seven, the number in the Life. This jataka, sometimes called the Vyaghri (or Tigress) Jataka, is not in the Pali collection, but the story is in Hardy's "Manual of Buddhism" where the P'usa is a brahmin named Brahma and lives near Dālddi, a village not far from the rock Munda (otherwise called Eraka).¹ In one version the P'usa is the prince Chandanamati son of king Gandhasri of Gandhamati (that is, Gandhara),² in another he is a Prince in the Panchāla country, and in another the scene of the self-sacrifice is not localised. The Chinese pilgrim of the Sung period found the precipice from which Mahāsattva threw himself in a mountain to the west of Kashmir.³

The word which Yuan-chuang uses in this passage for "tigress" is the unusual one *wu-tu* (烏莫 or as in D 擇). This word, also written 𪛗𪛗 pronounced *wu t'u*, is the

¹ M B p 94

² P u sa t'c shên ssū ngo hu ch'ī t'a yin yuan ching (No 436)

³ Ma T 1, ch 338

old Central China name for a *tiger*, and it is also a recognized term but of very rare occurrence¹

To the north of the Body offering Tope was a stone Asoka tope above 200 feet high with very artistic ornamentation and shedding a miraculous light. Small topes and above 100 small shrines encircled the grave pilgrims afflicted with ailments made circumambulation and many were cured. To the east of this tope was a monastery with above 100 Brethren all Mahayanists.

We have thus two topes at this place to commemorate the self sacrifice of the Pusa to save the life of the tigress. Cunningham has identified one of these, apparently the stone one with the great Manikyala Tope and he quotes the Chinese pilgrims' testimony in support of this identification². Now Fa hsien places the scene of the 'body offering', and the site of the memorial tope at a spot two days' journey east from his Takshasila which was seven days' journey east from his Gandhara, Sung yun who does not mention any tope, places the scene eight days' journey south east from the capital of Udyana and Yuan chuang puts it above 200 li (about 40 miles) south east from the north of the Takshasila country. For Sung yun's Udyana Cunningham substitutes Gandhara for Yuan chuang's 'north of Takshasila' he substitutes 'Taxila', and he makes the 'Indus' of the Records to be a mistake for the 'Suhān' River. Then he finds that the three pilgrims have thus exactly described the situation of the great Manikyala Tope which is about 34 miles south east from Shah dheri. The identification of this tope with either of those mentioned here by Yuan chuang seems to be attended with serious difficulties. The large stone tope was built by Asoka and the other one (according to tradition) was built either by a king of Gandhara contemporary with the Buddha or by Asoka and the Manikyala tope cannot be referred to an earlier period than the first century of our era. The tope near the "grave" or spot in which Mahā sattu's bones were interred was known as the 'Sattu-

¹ See Fang yen (方輿) ch 8

1 G I p 121

sarira Tope" or more fully as the "Tope of the relics of the Bodhisattva having given up his body to the tigress" It was supposed, we are told, to have been built by the king of Gandhara after he had heard the pathetic story from the Buddha

The Monastery mentioned in the above passage was visited by the Chinese pilgrim monk by name *Fa sheng* (法盛), a native of K'io chang about the beginning of the 5th century A D He found it a large establishment frequented by about 5000 Brethren, and the great tope was then daily visited by crowds of pilgrims coming to be cured of infirmities

From this (i e the place of the interment of Mahasattva's bones) the pilgrim proceeded eastward above 50 *li* to an isolated hill Here was a monastery with above 200 Brethren all students of the Mahayana system amid luxuriant vegetation and with pellucid streams and tanks Beside the monastery was a tope above 300 feet high which marked the place where the Buddha once converted a wicked Yaksha and made him give up the eating of animal food.

Continuing his journey our pilgrim travelled south east over hills for above 500 *li* and arrived at the *Wu la shih* country This was a very hilly region above 2000 *li* in circuit, with little cultivated land, the capital was seven or eight *li* in circuit but there was no ruler and the country was a dependency of Kashmir, the people were rough and decentful and they were not Buddhists About four *li* to the south east of the capital was an Asoka tope above 200 feet high and at its side was a monastery which contained a few Brethren all Mahāyanists

The *Wu la shih* of this passage, in the D text of the *Life Wu la cha* perhaps represents an original like Uras or Uraksh The word for "over hills" (*shan* 山) is in most of the texts, but not in all Cunningham identifies this country with the "*Vara Regio* of Ptolemy, and with the modern district of *Rash*, in Dhantāwar, to the west of Muzafarabad" That is, Yuan chuang places the district of Uras about 125 south east from the Takshasilā country, and Cunningham without any warning or explanation, places it above 100 miles to the north east of that country¹

...
 M St Martin, who had made the same identification suggests that there is a mistake in our author's text which should have *north east* instead of *south east*¹ But this latter is the reading of all the texts, and of the Life, and the Fang chih In another passage of the Life, however, we find Kashmir placed 50 yojanas distant from Takshasila in a north east direction.² There are apparently mistakes in the pilgrim's account of some of the places in this part of his narrative with respect to their relative positions, and, on the other hand, the identifications proposed are not to be accepted as absolutely correct A later investigator, who also silently ignores the pilgrim's statement of direction, thinks that "the country of Urasa corresponded pretty nearly to that of the modern Hazara, if we include in that term the whole tract up to the Indus, now held by the Tamaolis, the Hassarzais, the Akazais and others" This writer regards Haripur as corresponding to Yuan chuang's capital of Uras, the actual city being now represented by Pirmamaka, a Mahometan shrine close under the citadel of Haripur The identification here proposed, it will be seen, practically agrees with that proposed by previous investigators³

From Uras the pilgrim goes on to narrate he continued his journey south east above 1000 *li* over mountains and along dangerous paths and across iron bridges to the country of Kashmir

Our pilgrim transcribes this name *Ka sse-mi-lo* (迦濕彌羅), and the transcription in the T'ang Shu and other works is *Ko-shih mi* (箇矢蜜)

¹ Julien Vol. iii p 321

² Ch 5 and Julien Vol i p 262

³ Revd C Swymerton in Ind Ant. Vol xx, p 336

CHAPTER VIII

CHUAN III CONT^D

KASHMIR TO RAJAPUR ,

KASHMIR. -

FOR an account of the pilgrim's entry into Kashmir, and his arrival at the capital of that country, we are indebted to the narrative in the *Life* : This treatise tells us that Yuan chuang entered Kashmir territory by the rocky Pass which formed the western approach to the country. At the outer end of the Pass he was received by the maternal uncle of the king, who had been sent with horses and conveyances to escort him to the capital. On the way thither the pilgrim passed several Buddhist monasteries in which he performed worship, and at one, the Hushkara (護瑟迦羅)-vihāra, he spent a night. During the night the Brethren of the monastery had dreams in which they were informed by a deity that their guest was a Brother from Mahā China who, desirous of learning, was travelling in India on a pilgrimage to Buddhist sacred places, the Brethren were also exhorted by the deity to rouse themselves to religious exercises in order to earn by their proficiency the praise of their illustrious guest. This was repeated on each of the few days occupied by the pilgrim and his party in reaching the royal Dharma sala which was about a yojana from the capital. At this building the king was waiting to receive the pilgrim and conduct him into the city. His Majesty was attended by

his grantees, and by certain Buddhist monks from the capital, and he had a magnificent retinue of above 1000 men. He treated his Chinese visitor with marked ceremonious respect, and mounted him on one of his large elephants when setting out for the city. On his arrival here the pilgrim lodged for one night in the Jayendra (閼耶因陀羅)-monastery, but next day on the king's invitation he took up his quarters in the palace. Then His Majesty appointed some scores of Brethren with the illustrious Bhadanta *Ch'êng* (稱), or ? Yaśa, at their head to wait on his Chinese guest. He also invited Yuan-chuang to read and expound the Scriptures, gave him twenty clerks to copy out Mss, and five men to act as attendants. The pilgrim remained here two years and devoted his time to the study of certain sūtras and śāstras, and to paying reverence at sacred vestiges (that is, places held in reverence by Buddhists).

Neither the Records nor the Life gives the name of the king of Kashmir who so hospitably entertained our pilgrim. It was, apparently, the same king who about this time, as we learn on I-ching's authority, received another Chinese pilgrim, by name Sūan-hui (玄會), and entertained him as a guest in the palace for about a year, when some unpleasantness arose which caused Sūan-hui to leave and continue his wanderings.¹

Coming back to the text of the Records we find a Chinese editorial note added to the word Kashmir telling us that Ki(-Ka)-pin (罽賓) was an old and incorrect name for the country. But in many Chinese treatises Ka-pin is a geographical term of vague and varying extension, and not the designation of a particular country. It is applied in different works to Kapis, Nagar, Gandhāra, Udyāna, and Kashmir. The region first called Kapin was once occupied by the Sakas (塞), a great nomad people who spread themselves over vast regions to the north-west

¹ Hsi-yu-ch'iu, ch. 1; Chavannes *Mém* p 46

from what is now the district of Kashgar.¹ Afterwards applied less vaguely Kapin was the name of a country south of the Ts'ung-Ling and subject to the Great Yue-ti (Getæ), and it is said to have been a synonym for the *Tsao* (𡵓) of the Sui period.¹ But by several Chinese writers, and translators of Buddhist books into Chinese, both before and after our pilgrim's time, the word Kapin is used to designate the country which he and others call Kashmir. Thus for the "charming Kāśmir-city" of the Divyāvadāna the Chinese translation has simply Kapin. Then we read of the rishi Revata, who lived on a mountain in Kapin, being converted by the Buddha, and building a tope (or chaitya) for the Buddha's hair- and nail-relics. This Revata is "Raivataka, a bhikshu of Śaila Vihāra at Kāśmir", and the "Śaila vihara" was the Cliff (石崖)-Monastery not far from the old capital of Kashmir.² But by Chinese writers generally Kapin seems to have been always loosely applied; and even down to the T'ang period the word was used by them to designate a region which did not correspond to that afterwards known to them as Kashmir. Thus in the *Hsi-yü-chih*, a Buddhistical treatise of the Sui period, Kapin is evidently the Kapis of other works, the country of Buddha's skull-bone and of the Chinese Monastery. Even the T'ang-Shu treats Kashmir and Kapin as names of two countries, and gives descriptive particulars about each. In other works of the T'ang period we find Kapin apparently used to denote the Nagar and Kapis of earlier writings.

The word Kashmir is transcribed in Chinese in several ways giving slight differences as Kāśmir and Kashmir, and it is explained as meaning "Who goes in?". It is said to have arisen at the time when Madhyāntika induced the dragon to turn the lake into dry land in the manner to be presently described. When the people saw the arhat

¹ Han-Shu, ch. 96, p. I.

² Divyāv. p. 399; Tsa-a-han-ching, ch. 23; Ta-chih-ta-lun, ch. 9; Abhi-ta-rīb. ch. 125; Bud. Lit. Nep. p. 76.

sitting where water had been a moment before they were afraid to venture to him and kept exclaiming to each other—*Who goes in?* This etymology, which reminds one of Dean Swift, is curious but not satisfactory. Burnouf suggested that Kásmir might be for Kásvapa mir, and one variety of the Chinese transcriptions is *Ka ye* (that is *Ka* is often used for Kásvapa)-*mi-lo* (𑖕𑖦𑖫𑖜) or Kásvapa mir, but these characters may simply be for Kásmir.

The pilgrim gives a short general description of Kashmir in his usual manner. It was, he states, above 7000 *li* (1400 miles) in circuit surrounded by high steep mountains over which were narrow difficult Passes and the country had always been imperregnable. The capital which had a large river on its west side was 12 or 13 *li* from north to south and five or six *li* from east to west. The district was a good agricultural one and produced abundant fruits and flowers, it yielded also horses of the dragon stock saffron lenses and medicinal plants. The climate was very cold in season with much snow and little wind. The people wore serge and cotton (*pas t'ei*), they were volatile and timid being protected by a dragon they crowed over their neighbours, they were good looking but deceitful they were fond of learning and had a faith which embraced orthodoxy and heterodoxy (that is Buddhism and other religions). The Buddhist Monasteries were above 100 in number, and there were above 5000 Buddhist Brethren, and there were four Asoka topes each containing above a joint (*sh'ei g*) of the bodily relics of the Buddha.

The circuit which our pilgrim here assigns to the country of Kashmir is about 3000 *li* above that given to it by Ma Tuan lin and other authorities and it is evidently much too great. The rocky Pass (lit. "stone gate") by which the pilgrim entered the country, was evidently the western Pass which terminates near the town of Barhamul (Varāhamulā). This is Alberuni's "ravine whence the river Jālam comes, at the other end of this ravine is the watch station Dīaz, on both sides of the river Jālam. Thence leaving the ravine you enter the country and reach in two more days Addisthān the capital."

Kashmir passing on the road the village of Ushhara which lies on both sides of the valley in the same manner as Baramula.¹ In the text of the Lite the Prince is represented as meeting the pilgrim at the outer end of the Pass but as he had horses and carriages with him we must understand him as waiting for the pilgrim at the Dvar at the inner end of the Pass. In the Tang Shu the name of the capital of Kashmir is given as *Po lo uu lo pu lo* (持連勿羅布羅) that is Baramula (or Vaidhamula) pura. Other authorities give *Pi lo-ta* (毗羅吐) that is Bhiraṭh or *Shan chuen* (善堅) meaning "of good solidity" as names for the capital in previous periods. Our pilgrim represents the capital as having a large river on its west side and the Tang Shu tells us that this was the *Mi na si to* (彌那瑟多) or perhaps Menasita.

Among the products of Kashmir specified by the pilgrim in this passage is an article the name of which here as in other passages is given by me as "saffron". The original for this is *Yuh chin hsiang* (鬱金香) which Julien and others always render by *Curcuma* or *turmeric*. But this undoubtedly is not the meaning of the term here and in other passages of the Records and Life. The word *hsiang* means "incense" or "perfume", and *Yuh chin* pronounced like *Guh kum* evidently represents a foreign word. In Sanskrit one name for *saffron* is *Kunkuma*, and *Yuh-chin* in its old pronunciation is to be regarded as a transcription of this word or of a provincial variation of it like the Tibetan *Gurkum*. That *Yuh-chin hsiang* is "saffron" is seen also by comparing the Tibetan and Chinese translations of a Sanskrit passage which tells of Madhyantika's proceedings in Kashmir. The valuable plant which this arhat carries off from the Gandhamadana Mountain and introduces into Kashmir is called *saffron*.

¹ Alberuni Vol. 1 p. 207. So Baron Hugel leaving this "Indian Paradise" "passed through a rock which together with the river forms a strong barrier." *Travels in Kashmir and the Panjab* p. 172 (tr. Jervis).

in the Tibetan¹ rendering and *Yuh chin* in the Chinese version¹ The saffron plant *Crocus sativus*, has been greatly cultivated in this country from a very early period Its flowers were long ago used to adorn the necks of oxen at the autumn festival in the country, and they were boiled in aromatic spirits to make a perfume² This, or some preparation of the flowers, was largely used in northern countries in the service of worship offered before images in Buddhist temples The flowers of the saffron plant are still largely used in decoctions both as a condiment and as a pigment, by many of the inhabitants of Kashmir³ But the *fei*(緋) *yuh-chin* or purple saffron was forbidden as a dye material to the Buddhist Brethren It seems very likely that the term *Yuh chin hsiang* is sometimes used in a loose manner and applied to turmeric, just as the name "Saffron", we learn is often given to turmeric and safflower⁴

The word for "lenses" in Yuan chuang's description in the passage under consideration is *huo-chu* (火珠) lit. "fire pearls", and this is rendered by Julien "lentilles de verre" The pilgrim was here apparently translating the Sanskrit word *dahanopala* which means *fire stone, burning gem*, and is a name for crystal lenses These "fire pearls" are described as being like crystal eggs and one of the tortures of the Hungry Ghosts is that for them the drops of rain turn into "fire pearls"

The reader will observe that our pilgrim in his enumeration of some of the chief products of Kashmir, has not a word about its grapes and wine Yet the country was celebrated for its grapes and it was long the only place

¹ Sar Vin Tsa shih, ch 40 Tar S 12 A yu wang chuan ch 4 See Dr Bretschneider in Ch Notes and Queries Vol III p 55 and IV p 97

² Abhi ta vib ch 12 Fa yu an chu lin ch 36

³ On the saffron of Kashmir see Lawrence's "Valley of Kashmir" p 342

⁴ Glossary of Ang Ind Terms s v Saffron

in all the parts about India in which wine was made from the juice of the grape

With reference to the state of Buddhism it is remarkable that our pilgrim gives the number of Buddhist establishments in this country as only 100, while Wu k'ung, who lived in it for some time above a century later, gives the number at his time as 300¹

Kashmir is one of the most important and most famous lands in the history of the spread and development of Buddhism. In the literature of this religion we find frequent reference to the capital, and the country generally, in terms of praise and admiration. The pious, learned, and eloquent Brethren of the region seem to have had a great reputation even at the time of king Asoka who is represented as calling on the disciples of Buddha dwelling in the "charming city of Kaśmīr" to come to his Council². When the Buddha and the Yaksha Vajrapāni—not Ananda as Yuan chuang relates—were returning through the air from the conquest and conversion of the Dragon of Udyana, as they were over the green vales of Kashmir Buddha drew Vajrapāni's attention to them³. Into these, the Buddha predicted, after my parinirvāṇa an arhat named Madhyantika will introduce my religion, and the country will become distinguished as a home of the Brethren devoted to absorbed meditation (Samādhi) and prolonged contemplation (Vipassana). In another book the Buddha is represented as having prophesied that Kashmir would become rich and prosperous as Uttaravat, that Buddhism would flourish in it, the number of the disciples being beyond counting, and that it would become like the Tushita Paradise⁴. The country, he said, would be like Indra's Pleasure-garden, or the Anavatapta Lake district, and it would be a real "great Buddhist Congregation."

The pilgrim proceeds with his narrative and relates the story

¹ Shih h ching, J. A. 1895, p. 341 ff

² Tsa a han ching ch. 23, Divyav. p. 399

³ Sar Vin Yao shih ch. 9

⁴ Lien hua mien ching, ch. 2 (Bun. No. 460)

of Madhyantika's coming According to the native records, he states, Kashmir was originally a dragon lake When the Buddha, having subdued the wicked dragon of Udyana, had arrived above Kashmir on his way through the air to Central India he said to Ananda—"After my decease Madhyantika, an arhat, will in this place establish a country, settle people, and propagate Buddhism" In the 50th year after Buddha's decease, the pilgrim continues, Ananda's disciple the arhat Madhyantika, perfect in spiritual attainments having heard of Buddha's prediction was delighted He accordingly came hither and took his seat in a wood at a great mountain Here he made miraculous exhibitions and the dragon seeing these asked the arhat what he wanted "I want you to grant me room for my knees in the lake", was the reply, i e I want to have as much dry land in the lake as will enable me to sit cross legged The dragon thereupon proceeded to grant the arhat's request by withdrawing water from the lake, but Madhyantika by the exercise of his supernatural powers enlarged his body until the dragon had drawn off all the water of the lake Then the dragon was accommodated in a lake to the north-west of the old one, and his relations and dependents went to live in a small one The dragon now begged Madhyantika to remain permanently and receive due service, but the arhat replied that this was impossible as the time was near for his parinirvana At the dragon's request, however, Madhyantika consented that his 500 arhats should remain in Kashmir as long as Buddhism lasted in the country, the land to become again a lake when Buddhism ceased to exist Madhyantika now by his miraculous powers built 500 monasteries and afterwards he bought foreign slaves to serve the Brethren Some time after his decease these inferiors became rulers of the country, but neighbouring states despising them as a low born breed would not have intercourse with them, and called them Krita or "the Bought"

This account of Madhyāntikā does not quite agree with any of the older accounts in Buddhist books These, however, present some interesting and important points of difference among themselves Yuan chuang's narrative follows the version which is to be found with slight variations of detail in the "A-yu wang-chuan" version of the Asokāvadāna, the Sarvata Vinaya, and in the Tibetan texts translated by Schiefner and Rockhill: In these

* A-yü-wang chuan, ch 4, Sar Vin Tsa shih ch 40, Tar 1 c, Rockhill Life p 166 ff

Madhyantika is a disciple of Ānanda converted and ordained in the last moments of Ānanda's life he is a master of 500 disciples, and comes with these from the Himavat to the place where Ānanda is about to pass away, on a magic isle in the Ganges Ānanda ordains the master and his disciples and all immediately attain arhatship, they want to pass away before Ānanda, but he gives the master Buddha's commission for him to go and teach Buddhism in Kāshmir, and the commission is accepted. The name given to the master and also apparently to his disciples is explained as meaning Mid water (中水) as if Madhyantika (for udika) because they were ordained and perfected on an island in the Ganges it is also explained by Mid day (中日) as if Madhyān dīna because the ordination took place at mid day. But according to the "Shan chien lu vibhīṣhā Buddhaghosha, the "Dīpa vamsa and the "Mahāvamsa Madhyantika called Mayhantiko the thera lived in the time of Moggallāputta Tissa and was sent by that head of the church from Pāṭaliputra to Kāshmir and Gandhara. Then there is a Kashmir Abhidharma treatise in which we have a dragon called "Fearless' in the country. This dragon plagues the 500 arhats in their monasteries the arhats have no magic powerful enough to drive the dragon away, a foreign Brother comes who has no skill in magic and no supernatural powers whatever, by the power of a pure strict life (śīla) he using only a polite request rids the country of the dragon. In the Pāli versions of Madhyantika's story the name of the dragon is Aravāla, the *4-lo-polu* of the Chinese translation, in the Sarvata Vinaya it is *Hu lung* the Hulunta of Rockhill. This dragon was a wicked spiteful creature sending floods to ruin crops according to the Pāli accounts, and he is perhaps the original of the Udyana dragon.

¹ Shan ch en lu vib ch. 2, Vinaya Vol III p 315 Dīp VIII
¹ 4 Mah. ch XII

² Abhi ta vib ch 44

language of Buddhism he had "made three immediate karmas" (三無間業), three *ānantarya karmas*. Stung by conscience, and haunted by fear, he now skulked from place to place until he reached Pāṭaliputra. Here he resolved to enter religion, and he easily persuaded a monk of the Kukuṭārāma vīhāra to have him ordained. He now devoted all his energies and abilities to his new profession and, having zeal and capacity, he soon rose to be the head of the establishment, and the leader of a large party in the church at Pāṭaliputra. His intellectual abilities were much above those of the ordinary brethren, but his orthodoxy was doubtful, and his moral character was not above suspicion. Mahādeva claimed to have attained arhatship, and he explained away circumstances which seemed to be destructive of his claim. In answer to queries from younger brethren he enunciated five dogmas, or tenets, which led to much discussion and at length to open dissension. These tenets were, (1) An arhat may commit a sin under unconscious temptation, (2) One may be an arhat and not know it, (3) An arhat may have doubts on matters of doctrine, (4) One cannot attain arhatship without the aid of a teacher, (5) The "noble ways" may begin by a shout, that is, one meditating seriously on religion may make such an exclamation as "How sad!" and by so doing attain progress towards perfection. These five propositions Mahādeva declared to be Buddha's teaching, but the senior Brethren declared them to be Mahādeva's invention and opposed to the orthodox teaching. There were at the time four "sets" or "parties" of Buddhists at Pāṭaliputra and these had bitter controversies about the five propositions. When dispute ran high the king, on Mahādeva's suggestion, called an assembly of all the monks to have an open discussion and vote on the subject, the king being a friend and patron of Mahādeva. When the assembly was summoned it was attended by a number of senior Brethren, who were arhats, and by an immense number of ordinary ordained members of the church. The superior Brethren argued and voted against

the five propositions, but they were far outnumbered by the inferior members who were all friends of Mahādeva. When the discussion and voting were over the wrangling still continued, and the king ordered all the brethren to be embarked in rotten boats and sent adrift on the Ganges; by this means he thought it would be shewn who were arhats and who were not. But at the critical moment 500 arhats rose in the air, and floated away to Kashmir. Here they dispersed, and settled in lonely places among the vales and mountains. When the king heard what had occurred he repented, and sent messengers to coax the arhats to return to his capital, but they all refused to leave. Hereupon he caused 500 monasteries to be built for them, and gave the country to the Buddhist church. These 500 arhats introduced and propagated the Sthavira school in Kashmir, and the majority of inferior brethren at Pataliputra began the Mahāsaṅghika school.

It will be noticed that in this account we have neither the name of the king nor the date of the schism. But in the "I-pu-tsung-lun" and the "Shi-pa-pu-lun" the king is Asoka, and the time above 100 years after Buddha's decease. Additional information on the subject will be found in Wassiljew's "Buddhismus" and in Schiefner's "Taranātha" ¹. In the "Shan chien-lu-vibhāsha" and in the passages of the Pali works referred to in connection with Madhyāntika we find mention of a Mahādeva at Pāṭaliputra ². But this man lived apparently a good and pious life, and he was sent by Tissa as a missionary to the Andhra country. He preached (or composed) the "Devaduta sutra" that is the Deva-messenger sutra, in Chinese *T'ien-shi-ching* (天使經), and he seems to have been successful in propagating Buddhism. This may be the Mahādeva of the northern treatises, the popular and influential abbott of Pāṭaliputra. But the latter dies, and

¹ Was Bud S 62, Tar S 51 and 293, Rhys Davids in J R. A. S. 1892, p 9

² Shan chien lu vib cā 2, Vinaya Vol III, p 316

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¹ Was. Bud. S 62, Tar. S 51 and 293, Rhys Davids in J. R. A. S. 1892 p. 9

² Shan chien lu vib. ch. 2, Vinaya Vol. III, p. 316

is cremated with peculiar circumstances at the capital, and there is no mention of his mission to Andhra. On the other hand it seems possible that the Brethren, sent away in different directions as apostles, were men who had taken prominent parts in the controversies which had arisen among the Buddhists of Pāṭaliputra. All accounts seem to agree in representing their Mahadeva as a man of unusual abilities and learning, and the story of his great crimes as a layman, and his unscrupulous ambition as an abbot, related in the Abhidharma treatises are probably the malicious inventions of enemies.

Our pilgrim next proceeds to relate the circumstances connected with the great Council summoned by Kanishka. This king of Gandhara Yuan chuang tells us in the four hundredth year after the decease of Buddha was a great and powerful sovereign whose sway extended to many peoples. In his leisure hours he studied the Buddhist scriptures having a monk every day in the palace to give him instruction. But as the Brethren taught him different and contradictory interpretations, owing to conflicting tenets of sectarians the king fell into a state of helpless uncertainty. Then the Venerable Parsva explained to His Majesty that in the long lapse of time since Buddha left the world disciples of schools and masters with various theories had arisen all holding personal views and all in conflict. On hearing this the king was greatly moved and expressed to Parsva his desire to restore Buddhism to eminence and to have the Tripitaka explained according to the tenets of the various schools. Parsva gave his cordial approval of the suggestion and the king thereupon issued summonses to the holy and wise Brethren in all his realm. These came in crowds from all quarters to Gandhara where they were entertained for seven days. They were far too numerous however to make a good working Council so the king had recourse to a process of selection. First all had to go away who had not entered the saintly career—had not attained one to the four degrees of perfection. Then of those who remained all who were arhats were selected and the rest dismissed. Of the arhats again those who had the "three fold intelligence" and the "six fold penetration" were retained, and these were further thinned out by dismissing all of them who were not thoroughly versed in the Tripitaka and well learned in the Five Sciences. By this process the number of arhats for the Council was reduced to 499.

Yuan chuang goes on to tell that the king proposed Gandhara

as the place of meeting for the Council, but that this place was objected to on account of its heat and dampness. Then Rājagāha was proposed, but Pārśva and others objected that there were too many adherents of other sects there and at last it was decided to hold the Council in Kashmir. So the king and the arhats came to his country, and here the king built a monastery for the Brethren.

When the texts of the Tripiṭaka were collected for the making of expository Commentaries on them, the Venerable Vasumitra was outside the door in monk's costume. The other Brethren would not admit him because he was still in the bonds of the world, not an arhat. In reply to his claim to deliberate, the others told him to go away and come to join them when he had attained arhatship. Vasumitra said he did not value this attainment a spittle—he was aiming at Buddhahood and he would not have any petty condition ('go in a small path'), still he could become an arhat before a silk ball which he threw in the air fell to the ground. When he threw the ball the Devas said to him so as to be heard by all—Will you who are to become Buddha and take the place of Maitreya, honoured in the three worlds and the stay of all creatures—will you here realize this petty fruit? The Devas kept the ball and the arhats made apologies to Vasumitra and invited him to become their President accepting his decisions on all disputed points.

This Council, Yuan chuang continues, composed 100 000 stanzas of Upadesa śāstras explanatory of the canonical sūtras, 100 000 stanzas of Vinaya vibhāṣa śāstras explanatory of the Vinaya, and 100 000 stanzas of Abhidharma vibhāṣa śāstras explanatory of the Abhidharma. For this exposition of the Tripiṭaka all learning from remote antiquity was thoroughly examined, the general sense and the terse language [of the Buddhist scriptures] were again made clear and distinct, and the learning was widely diffused for the safe guiding of disciples. King Kanishka had the treatises when finished written out on copper plates and enclosed these in stone boxes, which he deposited in a tope made for the purpose. He then ordered the Yakshas to keep and guard the texts, and not allow any to be taken out of the country by heretics, those who wished to study them could do so in the country. When leaving to return to his own country Kanishka renewed Asoka's gift of all Kashmir to the Buddhist church.

This account of King Kanishka's Council and its work is very interesting, but it requires to be supplemented by some notes and explanations. There are also some

statements of the author which, in the abstract here given, are different from the versions given in Julien's full translation. Thus Yuan-chuang represents the king as summoning the arhats to make *vibhāsha lun*, that is, discussions on, or expositions of, the Canonical works. Julien, however, makes the author state that the king "voulut composer (un traite intitule) *Vibhasha 'cāstra*". Here the words which I have put in brackets are an addition by the translator and do injury to the text. Again, when all was ready for the Council to proceed to work, the Venerable Vasumitra, Yuan-chuang tells us, *hu-wai-na-yi* (戶外衲衣) which Julien translates "se tenait en dehors de de la porte et raccommo-dait son vêtement". But the words mean simply "was outside in monk's costume". The term *na* (sometimes written 衲) *yi* is of very frequent use in this sense of "bhikshu's clothing". Thus the monk's complete dress is called "the five *na-yi* of the cemeteries", and we read of a Brother *na-yi yen-tso*, "sitting meditating in monk's dress, it was one of the rules of Devadatta's fraternity that the members should for life "*don na yi*". The expression in our text is used to indicate that Vasumitra was an ordinary bhikshu, not an arhat.¹

The story which follows about the attempt to exclude Vasumitra from the deliberations of the Council, because he was only an ordinary bhikshu, is a feeble imitation of the story about Ananda at the First Council. In our text Yuan-chuang, going according to Mahāyanist traditions, identifies the Vasumitra of Kanishka's time with Buddha's disciple of the same name. The latter, as the Buddha is represented telling his audience, had in a far past existence been a monkey, as such he acquired a knowledge of and faith in Buddhism, and he received the prediction that in a future birth he would become Buddha, in the time of Gautama Buddha he had been born as a human creature and in due course of time had become a

¹ Vasumitra so chi lun, ch 2 (No 1289), Kao seng chuan ch 3, Shih sung lu, ch 36

disciple and risen to great eminence. But something remained over from his simious life which led him to play and gambol occasionally, and so give cause of offence. Buddha, however, explained the circumstances, and stated that Vasumitra was to take the place of Maitreya, and finally succeed the latter as Buddha with the name *Shih-tzu yue* (or merely *Shih tzü*) *Ju lai*, that is Lion moon (or Lion) 'Tathagata'. Thus the Vasumitra of *Yuang chuang's* story having the rank of a Bodhisattva (being a "Pusa-bhikshu" as he is called) was above the degree of arhat according to Mahāyānist teaching, and hence his refusal in the story to acquire the "petty fruit". It was probably a survival of simious propensities which made him play with the ball of silk in the very solemn circumstances here related. The story here told about Vasumitra is very like one given in an old Mahāyāna śāstra about this pusa. But in the latter treatise it is a stone which he throws in the air, the stone is caught and held by devas who tell Vasumitra that he is to seek bodhi, that they are to obtain emancipation through him and that after twenty kalpas he will become Buddha.²

Vasumitra here as in other places translated *Shih yu* (世友) is a name common to several illustrious Buddhists in the early periods of the church. The personal disciple of the Buddha already mentioned who is destined to become Buddha may perhaps be the sthavira with this name who is placed by one authority next in succession to Upagupta.³ Then we have the Śāstra Master Vasumitra mentioned in the Records who composed the 'Abhidharma prakarana pada śāstra' already noticed, and the "Abhidharma dhatukāyapada śāstra".⁴ It was probably also this author who composed the "*Wu shih lun*" to which Dharmatrata supplied a short expository commentary. This is

¹ *Fo shuo shih tzu yue Fo pen sheng ching* (No. 414) Tsun Vasumitra Pusa so chi lun. Preface (No. 1289)

² *Wei jih tsa nan ching* (No. 1328)

³ *Dharmatara shan ching ch. 1* (No. 1341)

⁴ *Abhi chie shen tsu lun* (No. 1287)

apparently not the Bodhisattva Vasumitra to whom is ascribed the authorship of the "Arya Vasumitra Bodhisattva sangiti sastra"¹ The 'Abhidharma mahavibhāṣa sastra' is also said to have been the work of the 500 arhats of Kaṁishka's Council with Vasumitra at their head But there is nothing either in this treatise or the Sangiti śāstra to show that these works were written at the time of Kaṁishka nor is there anything in either to show that it was wholly or in part the work of Vasumitra. It is only in one text out of four that the Sangiti sastra appears with Arya Vasumitra on the title page as author These two treatises contain references to Vasumitra and quotations from him and the Vibhāṣa work mentions him as one of the Four Great Lun shi of the Sarvastivādin School' He was noted among the learned and ingenious Doctors of this School for his theory about the threefold division of time and states of existence He held that the Past Present, and Future are all realities and that they differ as to their *uei* (位) "locations', or 'Conditions' as Mr Rockhill renders the corresponding Tibetan term Then there is also the Vasumitra who composed the important treatises 'Chih pu yi lun' and "Yi pu tsung lun"² Moreover there is the Vasumitra who furnished a commentary to Vasubandhu's celebrated "Abhidharma kośa sastra", but of him little or nothing seems to be known³ The Vasumitra who is given as the seventh Patriarch in the succession from Kaśyapa and who is supposed to have lived in the 6th century B C, need not be further mentioned⁴

The unfriendly feeling exhibited by the 499 arhats of Kaṁishka's Council in our pilgrims narrative towards Vasumitra reminds us, as has been stated, of Ānanda and the First Council But the old Mahāyāna Śāstra to

¹ See Tsun Vasumitra Pu sa so chi lun Cf T'ar S 67ff

² Chih pu yi lun (No 1980), Yi pu tsung lun (No 1280

³ Bar Int. p 566ff

⁴ Chih yue lu ch 3

which reference has been made tells us of an envious opposition to Vasumitra on the part of certain junior Brethren, and the hostility is not represented as connected with the Council. In both accounts, however, the genius and learning of Vasumitra are indispensable, and he overcomes the enmity, and gains the admiration of the Brethren.

The pilgrim tells us that when Vasumitra was admitted the Council being duly constituted proceeded to its work, which was, not to revise or rearrange the canonical treatises, but to furnish these with commentaries and discussions. Taking the sutras first the arhats composed 100 000 stanzas of upadēśa or explanatory comments on these. Julien makes the author say they composed "le traite Oupadēśa çāstra", and here again the addition of "le traite" spoils the meaning. Although there are upadēśas to several individual sutras, or to a class of sutras, there does not seem to have ever been a general upadēśa-śāstra for all the sutra-piṭaka.

This word *upadēśa* seems to have puzzled some of the early translators from Sanskrit into Chinese, and some of them apparently did not understand its meaning and derivation. One curious explanation of it is that it is "oral instruction to leave lust and cultivate goodness".¹ As the designation of a class of canonical treatises it is translated by Lun-i (論記) or Discussion. The term was technically used to denote a treatise made by a bhikṣu, and explanatory of the teachings of a canonical sutra, and the work itself might become a recognized sutra. It was then called a *Sutra-upadēśa* to distinguish it from the primitive Upadēśa sutras, and it was also called a Mahopadēśa, or Great Upadēśa. An essential requisite of such a work was that its teachings should be perfectly in accordance with those of the accepted canon. An upadēśa presented for approval, and rejected on account of its

¹ Sui hsiang lun, ch 1 (No 1260).

heterodoxy is called a *Karopade* a¹ The Council composed also 100 000 stanzas explaining the Vinaya—"Vinaya vibhashā lun" There is an extant treatise entitled "Sarvata (or Sarvastivadin) vinaya vibhasha" which may have been regarded as the work of the Council Unfortunately there is only a Chinese version of this work which is in nine *chuan* of unknown date and imperfect The original, however was evidently composed at a time long after the Buddha in a country outside of India and for the use of foreigners There is nothing in the work, however to shew that it was the work of Kani *hka's* Council.

According to our pilgrim this Council further made 100 000 stanzas of exposition or discussion of the Abhidharma—Abhidharma vibhasha lun. There are several vibhasha treatises in this section of the canon, and it would seem that there are others which have disappeared. In the existing collections of Buddhist books in China we find a treatise known by its short name "Vibhasha lun" its full title being "Vibhasha shuo Abhidharma shtakhandā"² This book is sometimes wrongly ascribed to Katyavaniputra who apparently composed the original text to which this work serves as a commentary The author of the "Vibhasha lun" is given as Shi te-pa-ni the native pronunciation being perhaps something Siddhavanṇi This man apparently lived in Kashmir and according to his own statement about 1000 years after Buddha's death. Another vibhasha treatise is the short one entitled "Wu shi (五事) vibhasha lun" composed by the great Dharmatara.³ This is an exposition of Vasumitra's "Wu shi lun" a treatise which does not appear among the canonical books Then we have the long and important work called "Abhidharma (or Abhidharmata) vibhasha lun" already mentioned. This treatise which was evidently

¹ Ta pan nie pan chung (No 114) Yi chie ch ng vin yi ch 1
Sar V n. Matrika, ch 6

² Sar Vin Vibhasha (Nos 1135 and 1136).

³ Vibhasha lun end of treatise (No 1^o 9).

⁴ Wu shih vibhasha lun (No 1083)

written in Kashmir was composed according to the translators into Chinese by 500 arhats. It is an exposition and discussion of Katyāyana's *Abhidharma jñāna prasthāna śāstra*, the short Chinese translation for which is "Fa chih lun" (發智論). But the "Abhidharma ta vibhāṣā lun" was evidently not composed by the Kanishka Council for not to mention other matters it relates a miracle which it says occurred *formerly* in the reign of that king.

The word *vibhāṣā* is often rendered in Chinese by Kuang shuo (廣說) *comprehensive statement* or Kuang-chie (廣解) *comprehensive explanation*. But more appropriate renderings are chung chung shuo (種種說) and fen fen shuo (分 | |) meaning *statement by classes or sections*¹. It denotes properly a commentary or discussion on a canonical text especially on an Abhidharma treatise². The term however seems to have become restricted by some at least to the Abhidharma commentaries written by certain masters in Buddhism chiefly of Kashmir who attached themselves to the Sārvastivādin School. These Masters are very often called Vibhāṣā shī (𑖦𑖩𑖫𑖛𑖜𑖞𑖟𑖡) but they are also sometimes called by other names such as Kashmir shī. A vibhāṣā must apparently be a commentary on an abhidharma treatise elucidating the text by the opinions of various authorities and it is not necessary that the author should be bound by the views of the Sārvastivādins or any other school or sect. There are also as has been seen Vinaya vibhāṣas and these are Commentaries or discussions on Vinaya rules as promulgated by certain disciples or enforced by certain schools.

Yuan chuāng's remarks about the learning brought to the making of the explanatory commentaries on the Tripiṭaka do not appear in the translations. The extent of the commentators' investigations is doubtless overstated but there is evidence of great study and research in the

¹ Yi chieh ching yin y ch 17

² Tsa abhi hsin lun Int et al (No 1287)

"Vibhāshā-lun" and "Abhidharma-mahā vibhāshā-lun" In these books we find an extraordinary acquaintance with Buddhist learning of various kinds, and also with Brahminical learning including the original Indian alphabets, the Vedas and their angas

It is to the statements made by our pilgrim about Kanishka's Council that we are indebted for nearly all our information about the Council In later Tibetan books we find mention of it and some particulars about it which do not agree with Yuan-chuang's account¹ In the Life of Vasubandhu also we read of an assembly meeting in Kapin (Kashmir) 500 years after Buddha's decease² It contained 500 arhats and 500 Bodhisattvas with Katyāyana putra as President, the Vice-President being Āśvaghosha These sages compiled the "Sarvata Abhidharma" and composed for it a commentary—vibhāshā When the latter was finished it was written out on stone by Āśvaghosha, and placed under guard, and the king, whose name is not given, forbade the carrying away of any part of the treatise out of the country. This account also does not agree with Yuan-chuang's narrative which must be treated with suspicion as probably containing some grave mistakes The discovery of the copper plates which he mentions, with the treatises inscribed on them, would help much to make known the Buddhism taught in the schools of Kashmir in or about the first century of our era

Our pilgrim continues his narrative and tells us of the invasion of Kashmir and the assassination of its Kṛtiya usurping sovereign by the king of the Tokhara country Himatala in the 600th year after the Buddha's decease We are told that after Kanishka's death a native dynasty had arisen in Kashmir and its sovereign had become a persecutor of Buddhism Hereupon the king of Himatala who was a Sakya by descent and a zealous Buddhist determined to drive the cruel Kṛtiya king from his

¹ Tar S 58 ff, 298

² Vasubandhu chuan (No 1463), Was Bud S 238 ff

throne and restore Buddhism By a stratagem cunningly devised and skilfully carried out he succeeded in killing the king of Kashmir He then banished the chief ministers of the Court and reinstated Buddhism as the religion of the country and then returned to his own kingdom But the pilgrim adds in the course of time the Kṛtiyas who still hated the Buddhists and bore them grudges regained the sovereignty and at Yuan chuang's time the country had no faith in Buddhism and gave itself up to other sects

The Himatala of this passage is a country of which we have some account in the XIIth *chuan* (Book) of these Records and it will meet us again

The pilgrim now proceeds to mention some of the noteworthy sacred objects connected with Buddhism in this district, and he begins with a Monastery containing above 300 Brethren and at it a tope built for a Tooth relic of the Buddha. These buildings he tells us were situated on the south side of a mountain to the north of the old capital and above ten *li* south-east from the new capital The tooth brought from India was preserved in the tope and Yuan chuang describes its size and colour We have also the legend of the acquisition of this relic by a persecuted monk of the country who had gone to India on a pilgrimage

The Tooth relic here mentioned was not allowed to remain in Kashmir and was carried away a few years after Yuan chuang's visit by the great king Śīlāditya¹

Our pilgrim goes on to describe that about fourteen *li* (about three miles) to the south of the Monastery at the Tooth tope was a small Monastery which contained a standing image of the Pusa Kuan tzu t'ai (Kuan yin Pusa) To importunate earnest worshippers this Pusa occasionally caused his golden body to emerge from the image

On a mountain above thirty *li* south east from this were the ruins of a fine large old monastery At the time of the pilgrim's visit he tells us only a two storey building in one corner of it was inhabited and this contained thirty Brethren who were all students of the Mahayana system. It was in this monastery

¹ There was a sacred tooth in Kashmir in Baron Hugel's time The Brahmins of Baramulla in whose keeping it was declared that the tooth was that of an ancient jinn but Hugel says it was an elephant's tooth "and of no great age to judge from its appearance

that the Śāstra master Sanghabhadra composed the "Shun chêng h lun (順正理論) To the right and left of the monastery were topes to great arhats and the relics of these were all still in existence. Hither monkeys and other wild animals brought flowers as offerings of worship and they did this regularly, as if acting under instructions. Many other strange things occurred on this mountain. Thus a wall of rock would be split across and footprints of horses would be left on the top of the mountain. But the latter were deceptive being tracings made by the arhats and their novices when out on parties of pleasure, such traces left by them as they rode to and fro were too numerous to mention. Above ten li east of the Buddha tooth monastery in the steep side of the northern mountain stood a small monastery. Here the great Śāstra Master *So-lan ti lo* (蘇建地羅) or Skandhila composed the "*Chung shih fen pi'p'o sha lun* (衆事分毘般少論)

The Śāstra master Sanghabhadra will come before us again in chapter X. The treatise here mentioned by the name "*Chung-shih fen pi'p'o sha* (vibhashā)-lun" does not seem to be known to the Buddhist canon, at least it is not in the existing catalogues or collections. It was apparently a vibhasha or disquisition on Vasumitra's treatise already mentioned the "*Chung shih fen abhidharma-lun*" called also the "*Abhidharma p'in lei tsu-lun*", the Sanskrit original for which is given as "*Abhidharma prakaraṇa pāda śāstra*" (Bun No 1292). Julien suggests "*Vibhāṣa-prakarana-pāda*" as possibly the original title of Skandhila's treatise. This Śāstra master, also styled "Arhat", of whom very little seems to be known, was also the author of the short but interesting treatise entitled "*Shuo i ch'ie-yu ju-abhidharma lun*". But the characters for *Shuo-i-ch'ie-yu* meaning "Sarvastivādin" are generally omitted and the work is known by its short name "*Ju abhidharma-lun*" which is in Sanskrit, according to B. Nanjio, "*Abhidharmavatara śāstra*". This retranslation of the title, however, may possibly not be the correct one. The book is an introduction or entrance (*Ju* 入) to the study of the Abhidharma and its original title may have been something like "*Abhidharmapraveśana śāstra*". It is to our

pilgrim that we are indebted for the Chinese translation of this little treatise¹

Within the grounds of this little monastery, the pilgrim tells us, was a stone tope over the bodily relics of an ancient arhat. This arhat, who has been referred to already, had been a very large man with the appetite of an elephant so the people of the time jeered at him as a glutton without a conscience. When the time for his passing away was near he said one day to the people—"I am soon to take the remainderless [to die], I wish to explain to you the excellent state to which I have personally attained." But the people only jeered the more and collected together to see what would befall. The arhat then addressed them thus—"I will now tell you the causal connection of my past and present states. In my last existence before this one I had through previous karma the body of an elephant in the stable of a raja of East-India. While I was there a Buddhist monk from Kashmir came to travel in India in search of sacred books. The raja gave me to the monk to carry his books home, and when I reached this country I died suddenly. As a result of my merit from carrying the sacred books I was next born as a human being and then enjoying the residue of my good fortune I became a Buddhist monk in early life." The arhat goes on to tell the people how he assiduously sought and at length obtained spiritual perfection. The only survival from his former bodily existence was his elephantine appetite, and by the exercise of self-restraint he had reduced his daily food to two thirds. Finally in the presence of the scoffing and unbelieving spectators he rose in the air and there in the smoke and blazes of a burning ecstasy, he went into final extinction, and a tope was erected over the relics which fell to the earth.

The story here related bears considerable resemblance to a story told in the *Mahāvibhāṣā-śāstra*. There a she elephant named *Mo-t'u* (or *-ch'a*) carries relics of the Buddha from a foreign country to Kashmir where she dies, she is then re-born as a male child and becoming a bhikṣu attains arhatship. But the arhat retains the elephant's appetite and requires a *hu* (bushel) of food every day. When he is about to pass away he proposes to explain to certain nuns his "superior condition" but

¹ This treatise is Bun No 1291. In the name of the author the first syllable is *Sa* (𑖀) instead of the *So* of our text.

they only jeer at him. Then he tells them his history, and so explains his great appetite which he says he had moderated, reducing his daily food from a bushel and a half to a bushel *per diem*¹. The reader will remember that Uttarasena brought his share of the Buddha's relics home on an elephant and that the elephant died on reaching a place not many miles from the capital of Udyana.

The pilgrim goes on to relate that at a distance of above 200 *li* north west from the capital was the monastery of the *Śāng lun* that is perhaps Merchant's wood. Here the Śāstra Master *Pu-la-na* (Purna) composed an expository *vibhasha lun* (釋論般沙論). To the west of the capital 140 or 150 *li* north of a large river and adjoining the south side of a hill was a Mahāsaṅghika Monastery with above 100 inmates. Here the Śāstra Master *Fo-ti-lo* composed the "Chi chen lun" of the Mahāsaṅghika School.

By the words here rendered "expository *vibhāṣhī lun*" the pilgrim probably only intended to describe the character of the śāstra not to give the name of the treatise written by Purna. There does not seem to be any work by this author in existing catalogues and collections of Chinese translations of Buddhist works, and we cannot be certain who is the Purna here mentioned. A book already mentioned, No 1282 in Mr. Bun Nanjo's Catalogue, is referred by one authority to a Purna as its author.

The name of the other Śāstra Master of this passage, *Fo-ti-lo* Julien thinks may be for Bodhila. In a note to the text the word is explained as meaning "Bodhi taking". But nothing seems to be known either about the man or the "Chi chen lun" which he composed.

It is worthy of notice that none of the Buddhist monasteries in Kashmir mentioned by Yuan chuang seem to have been known to other pilgrims and writers, and that Buddhist establishments at or near the capital, and in other parts of the country, mentioned by other authorities were apparently unknown to Yuan chuang, although they were evidently in existence at the time of his visit. Some

¹ Abhi ta vib ch 42

of the vihāras in Kashmir mentioned in Wu-k'ung's Itinerary were evidently of a date subsequent to that of our pilgrim, but several were much older. Then the pilgrim Suan hui, already mentioned, visited the monastery of the Dragon-Tank Mountain where the 500 arhats were worshipped, and this monastery does not seem to have been known to our pilgrim. The reader will have noted also that Yuan-chung when giving the numbers of the Monasteries and Brethren in Kashmir does not tell to which "Vehicle" the Brethren were attached. But we know from other sources that they were mainly Hinayānists of the Sarvāstivādin School, although as we learn from the Records and Life there were also Mahāyānists. At the capital the Brethren of the two "Vehicles" seem to have been living together, and the greatest among them, *Ch'êng* (or Yaśa?) was evidently a Hinayānist. The other Brethren mentioned in the Life are Visuddhasimha and Jinabandhu who were Mahāyānists, Suga-(tr-)mitra and Vasumitra who were Sarvāstivādins, and Suryadeva and Jinatrata who were Mahāsaṅghikas.

PAN-NU-TS'Ō

From this (that is perhaps, the vicinity of the capital of Kashmir) the pilgrim travelled, he tells us, through a difficult mountainous district south west for above 700 *li* to the *Pan nu ts'ŏ* country. This region he describes as being above 2000 *li* in circuit, as abounding in hills and mountain valleys with narrow areas of cultivation. The country yielded grain and flowers, sugar cane and fruits, except grapes, abounded. The country produced the mango, the fig (here called the udumbara) and the plaintain and these trees were grown in orchards near the dwelling houses. The climate was hot the people were daring and straight forward they wore chiefly cotton clothing, and they were sincere believers in Buddhism. The Buddhist monasteries, of which there were five were in a ruinous condition, and the country was a dependency of Kashmir. In a monastery to the north of the capital were a few Brethren, and to the north of this was a wonder working tope made of stone.

The *Pan nu-ts'ŏ* of this passage has been identified with the modern Punach, or Punats as the Kashmiris call it.

according to Cunningham¹ Instead of 2000 *li* as the circuit of the country given in some texts of the Records the old reading was 1000 *li*, and this agrees with Cunningham's statement of the size of the district In some old texts of the *Life* the name is given as *Pan nu-nu tso* (半笈奴嗟) in which the second *nu* may be due to a copyist's carelessness, this character being one of the two characters given to indicate the sound of *nu* 笈

RAJAPURA

Our pilgrim goes on to relate that from Punach a journey south east of above 400 *li* brought him to the *Ho-lo she-pu-lo* (Rajapura) country This he describes as being above 4000 *li* in circuit its capital being above ten *li* in circuit It was a difficult country to travel in as it was very hilly with narrow valleys, it was not fertile and it resembled Punach in products and climate and like that country it had no sovereign of its own and was subject to Kashmir There were ten Buddhist monasteries and the Brethren were few in number, there was one Deva Temple but the non Buddhists were very numerous

The native annotator to our text here makes Rajapura to be in "North India", but the annotator to the Fang-chih represents it as a state outside of India The country has been identified by Cunningham with "the petty chiefship of Rajaori, to the south of Kashmir"² In some texts of the *Life* the direction of Rajapura from Punach is south instead of the south east of our text

Here our pilgrim inserts the following interesting general observation about the countries through which he had lately been passing—

"From Lampa to Rajapura the inhabitants are coarse and plain in personal appearance, of rude violent dispositions, with vulgar dialects, and of scant courtesy and little fairness, they do not belong to India proper but are inferior peoples of frontier (i.e. barbarian) stocks"

As to this statement we may observe that the native editor of the Records has referred all these countries from

¹ A G I p 128

² A G I p 129

Lampa to Rajapura to "North India" Moreover our pilgrim's remarks at the beginning of *Chuan II* seem to indicate that he regarded all these countries as being included in the great region called India There, however, he was writing as a foreigner, and here he is writing from the point of view of a Indian The summary character which he here gives of the inhabitants of these countries is not to be fully accepted, and it does not seem to agree with his own descriptions in the preceding pages

CHAPTER IX

(CHUAN IV)

CHÊH-KA (TAKKA?) TO MATHURA

From Rajapur the pilgrim proceeded south east down a hill and across a river 700 *li* to the *Cheh la* country. This was above 10 000 *li* in circuit. It lay between the *Pi po she* (Bibas) river on the east and the Indus on the west, the capital was above 20 *li* in circuit. The crops of the country were upland rice and spring wheat, it yielded gold, silver, bell metal (*ku shih*) copper, and iron, the climate was hot with much violent wind, the inhabitants had rude bad ways and a low vulgar speech, they wore glossy white clothing made of silk muslin &c, few of them believed in Buddhism, and most served the Devas, there were ten Buddhist monasteries and some hundreds of Deva Temples. On from this country there were numerous Punyasals or free rest houses for the relief of the needy, and distressed, at these houses medicine and food were distributed and so travellers having their bodily wants supplied did not experience inconvenience.

In the Life we are told that our pilgrim on leaving Rajapur went south east, and after a journey of two (or three) days crossed the Chandrabhaga (Chenab) river to the city of Jayapur. Here he spent a night in a non-Buddhist monastery outside the west gate of the city. From this he went on to Śākala in the *Cheh lai* (in one text *Li-lai*) country, from that to the city Narasimha, and thence eastward to a palāśa wood. Here he had an encounter with brigands and narrowly escaped with his life. From the village beyond this wood he resumed his journey and reached the eastern part of the *Cheh lai* country. Here he found a large city, and in a mango

grove west of it lived a brahmin 700 years old, like a man of thirty years, and having all his mental and bodily powers. He had been a disciple of the great Nāgārjuna, and he was well acquainted with the sacred lore of Brahmins and Buddhists. With him Yün-chü seems to have studied the "Pai-lun" and the "Kuang-pai-lun", the latter of which our pilgrim afterwards translated.

The clause in the above passage from the Records rendered "they wore glossy-white clothing made of silk, muslin, &c" is in the original *yi-fu-hsien-pai-so-uei kao-she-ye-yi chao-hsia-yi* (承服鮮白所謂悟素耶承朝霞衣等). This is translated by Julien "Ils s'habillent avec des étoffes d'une blancheur éclatante qu'on appelle *Kiao-che ye* (Kaûçeya-soie), et portent des vêtements rouges comme le soleil levant, &c". But Kaûçeya, with which we have met already, and *chao hsia* are the materials of the white garments worn by the people. The words *chao-hsia-yi* cannot possibly be made to mean "et portent des vêtements rouges comme le soleil levant". *Chao-hsia* denotes the *light vapours of dawn*, the *eastern glow which heralds sunrise*. But it is the name given by the Chinese Buddhist pilgrims and writers to certain fine transparent fabrics which they found in India and other foreign countries. Thus the dancing girls of Fu-nan are described as "using *chao-hsia* for clothing". This material was a very fine white gauze or muslin capable of being dyed, it was soft and transparent like the fleecy vapours of dawn. The images of the P'usas, and other Buddhist worthies, were often made to represent these beings as wearing *chao hsia chün* or skirts of transparent material. Such like vestments may be seen on many of the Buddhist figures found in India and depicted in books. But *chao-hsia* as an article of clothing was evidently a kind of muslin simply fine and light¹.

¹ See the "Tang Shu, ch 22, 197 et al, Fo shuo t ê-lo m ching, ch 2 (No 363, tr 653) Cf —

"And the far up clouds resemble
Veils of gauze most clear and white"

Further, in this passage we have the sentence beginning with—'On from this country there were numerous Pūnyaśālas' For this the original is *tzu kuo yi wang to yu fu she* (此國已往多有福舍) Juhen translates the whole sentence thus—"Il y avoit jadis, dans ce royaume, une multitude de maisons de bienfaisance (Pounyaśālas) où l'on secourait les pauvres et les malheureux. Tantôt on y distribuait des médicaments tantôt de la nourriture Grâce à cette ressource les voyageurs ne se trouvaient jamais dans l'embarras" This rendering quite spoils the author's statement which is to the effect that at the time of his travels Rest houses, at which food and medicine were distributed gratis abounded in Cheh ka and the countries of India about to be noticed These Rest houses or *Fu she* are called Pūnyaśālas in *Chuan XII*, but in the account of the present country the Life calls them Dharmaśālas This latter word in Pāli Dhammaśāla is the name given to the Hall for preaching but it seems to be also used to designate the free Rest houses

On his way to the capital of this country (which was probably also called Cheh ka) and about fourteen li south west from it Yuan chuang came to the old capital called Śākala Some centuries previously a king named Mo hi lo ku lo (Mahirakula) who had his seat of government at this city ruled over the Indians He was a bold intrepid man of great ability and all the neighbouring states were his vassals Wishing to apply his leisure to the study of Buddhism he ordered the clergy of this country to recommend a Brother of eminent merit to be his teacher But the clergy found difficulty in obeying the command the apathetic among them not seeking notoriety, and those of great learning and high intelligence fearing stern majesty Now at this time there was an old servant of the king's household who had been a monk for a long time Being clear and elegant in discourse and glib in talking this man was selected by the congregation of Brethren to comply with the royal summons This insulting procedure enraged the king who forthwith ordered the utter extermination of the Buddhist church throughout all his dominions Now the king of Magadha at this time Balāditya by name was a just and benevolent ruler and a zealous Buddhist and he rebelled against the order for the persecution of Buddhists When Mahirakula proceeded to

invade the territory of Baladitya to reduce him to obedience the latter accompanied by several myriads of his subjects withdrew to an island. Mahirakula came in pursuit but he was taken prisoner. On the petition of Baladitya's mother the prisoner was set free and allowed to go away. His younger brother having taken possession of the throne he took refuge in Kashmir, and here he repaid hospitality by treachery, and having murdered the King he made himself ruler. Then he renewed his project of exterminating Buddhism, and with this view he caused the demolition of 1600 topes and monasteries and put to death nine kotis of lay adherents of Buddhism. His career was cut short by his sudden death and the air was darkened, and the earth quaked and fierce winds rushed forth as he went down to the Hell of unceasing torment.

This passage reads like a romance founded on a basis of fact. The Mahirakula of our pilgrim has been identified with king Mihirakula of Kashmir, and his king Baladitya of Magadha is supposed to be possibly the Nara Baladitya of coins.¹ But there are difficulties in the way of accepting these identifications. There is first the difference in the forms Mahirakula and Mihirakula, but this is perhaps unimportant and need not be further noticed. The form Mahirakula seems to be confined to the pilgrim, and he may have used it to suit his erroneous rendering of the name by *Ja tsu* or "Great Clan". But the Mihirakula of the Inscriptions began his reign in A. D. 515, while the king of whom Yuan-chuang tells lived "some centuries" before the pilgrim's time. Other authorities also seem to place Mihirakula at a date much before A. D. 515. Thus in the "*Lien hua mien ching*" or "the sutra of Lotus-flower face" Mihirakula, a reincarnation of the Lotus flower-face arhat, appears as the King who exterminates Buddhism in Kapi (Kashmir) and breaks the Buddha's bowl.² This sutra must have been composed some time before A. D. 574 the date of its translation (according to one account), and the contents seem to indicate that it was

¹ See Mr Fleet on Mihirakula in *Ind. Ant.* Vol. XV p. 245 f., and the correspondence at p. 346 f. *J. R. A. S.* Vol. XXI p. 114-5. *J. P. T. S.* 1896 pp. 87, 110. *Lawrence's Valley of Kashmir* p. 185.

² *Lien hua mien ching* ch. 2 (No. 465).

written long after the death of Mihirakula. It relates that after this event seven deva putras became incarnate in succession in Kashmir and that they restored Buddhism. The meaning of this evidently is that the king was succeeded by seven sovereigns who were all patrons of Buddhism. Then in the "Fu fa tsang yin yuan ching" translated A.D. 472 a persecuting king called *Mi lo lu* (彌羅嶺) that is evidently Mihirakula destroys the Buddhist sacred buildings and slaughters the Brethren in Kapin (Kashmir).¹ He beheads the 23rd and last (according to this work) of the great Buddhist Patriarchs by name Shih tzu (師子) that is Simha. This last event according to the *Chih yue lu* occurred in A.D. 259.² No authority is given for this date and it is not to be implicitly accepted but it is interesting to note that the *Ryatarangini* makes twelve reigns intervene between Kanishka and Mihirakula. If we allow an average of 15 years for these reigns we get A.D. 80 + 180 or A.D. 260 for the accession of Mihirakula.

The *Life* and *Records* leave the situation of the ruined city of Sakala rather uncertain. The latter work tells us that this city was 14 or 15 *li* south west from the new capital of the situation of which however we are not told anything. In the *Life* Sakala is three (or four) days' journey or about 300 *li* (about 60 miles) south east from Rajapur and on the east side of the Chenāl. Then the *old capital* of the *Records* does not appear in the *Life* which on the other hand mentions a large city on the eastern confines of Che Ka and this city does not appear in the *Records*. Cunningham against both the *Life* and the *Records* places Sakala about 120 miles to the *south west* of Rajapur. He identifies Yuan chuangs Cheh ka (or Tsekia) as name of a city with the ruins of a large town called *Asarur* which accord almost exactly with the pilgrim's description of the new town of Tsekia. This *Asarur* is "exactly 112 miles distant from Rajaori (Rajapur) in a direct line

¹ Fu fa tsang yin yuan-ching ch. 6 (No. 1340)

² Ch. yue lu ch. 3

drawn on the map", that is, 112 miles to the south-west of Rajapur. But it is very evident that Yuan-chuang's journey from the latter to the capital of Cheh-Ka was a zig-zag one always, however, tending eastward, and Asarur cannot be the pilgrim's capital of that country

In Sakala was a Buddhist monastery with above 100 Brethren all adherents of the Hinayana system. In this Monastery Pusa Vasubandhu composed the "Shêng yi ti-lun" (嚴義諦論). A tope beside this monastery marked a place where the Four Past Buddhas had preached, and there were footprints where they had walked up and down

The śāstra here ascribed to Vasubandhu does not seem to be known to the Buddhist collections. Julien restores the Sanskrit name as "Paramārtha satya śāstra", but this is only a probable conjecture

The Cheh-ka (俱舍) of this passage is Lih (隣)-ka in one text of the Life, and this latter form is found in other works. It is possible that the original for both transcriptions was a word like Tikka or Tekka, *ch* and *l* sounds being both used to represent the *t* of Sanskrit. The term in our text has been restored as Tchēka, Takka and Taki. It designated a country which was not in India, but was one of the foreign states which lay between Lampā and India, and should have been included in the pilgrim's general survey at the end of the last *chuan*.¹

CHI-NA-P'UH TI.

From the Che ka (or Tekka) district Yuan chuang continued his journey going eastward for above 500 li and came to the country which he calls *Chi na-p'uh ti* (至那僕底). This district was above 2000 li and its capital 14 or 15 li in circuit. It produced good crops of grain but did not abound in trees. The inhabitants had settled occupations and the national revenue was abundant. The climate was warm and the inhabitants had feeble timid ways. The learning of the people embraced Buddhism and secular knowledge, and orthodoxy and heterodoxy had each its adherents. There were ten Buddhist monasteries and nine Deva Temples.

¹ For this country see A. G. I. p. 179

The Chinese annotator here has translated the name of the country by *Han-fêng* (漢封), and Julien, who reads the characters of the name as *Tchi-na po-ti* gives the Sanskrit original as "Tchinapati", meaning "Lord of China". But *Han-fêng* means *China-fief* not *China lord*, and the characters for *p'uh-ti* cannot be taken to represent *pati*. They evidently stand for *bhukti* which is translated by *fêng* in the sense of possession, portion¹. So *China-bhukti* is the *China-allotment*, and the *China-bhukti deśa* was the district assigned to China, that is to the China hostage according to Yuan-chuang's story

One of the ten monasteries here mentioned was, according to the *Life*, called *T'u-she-sa-na*, which perhaps stands for *Toshāsan* meaning "Pleasure-giving". This monastery was apparently at the capital, and Yuan-chuang found in it a monk eminent for learning and piety. The name of this monk was *Vinitaprabha*, and he was the son of an Indian prince. This monk was the author of two commentaries on *Abhidharma* works, and Yuan-chuang remained here fourteen months studying with him various *Abhidharma* treatises.

Going back to the narrative in the *Records* we have the pilgrim's explanation how the name *China-bhukti* came to be given to this region.

When *Kanishka* was reigning the fear of his name spread to many regions so far even as to the outlying vassals of China to the west of the Yellow River. One of these vassal states being in fear sent a hostage to the court of king *Kanishka*, (the hostage being apparently a son of the ruler of the state). The king treated the hostage with great kindness and consideration, allowing him a separate residence for each of the three seasons and providing him with a guard of the four kinds of soldiers. This district was assigned as the winter residence of the hostage and hence it was called *Chinabhukti*. The pilgrim proceeds to relate how Peaches and Pears were unknown in this district and the parts of India beyond until they were introduced by the "China

* ¹ Sanskrit Chinese Vocabulary. In the C text of the *Life* instead of *pu* we have *-kin* (𑖦𑖩), but this may be only a copyist's mistake.

hostage Hence he tells us peaches were called "Chinani and pears were called "China rajaputra

The Sanskrit names here given for the peach and the pear seem to be known only from this narrative Later authorities tell us that these fruits are indigenous in the country, and the whole story of the hostage is possibly an invention. One Sanskrit name for the peach is given in a glossary as *aru* and this name is still in use and a name for the pear is given as *tanasa* but this word does not seem to be known Further the "China" known to the people of India before the arrival of Chinese pilgrims and afterwards was apparently not the "Flowery Middle Country", but rather a region occupied by a tribe living to the west of the Chinese empire, far west of the Yellow River This "China" was watered by the rivers Sita and Chakshu and it was one of the countries in the north east The name was afterwards extended to the "Flowery Land" apparently by the Buddhist writers and translators of India and Kashmir Our pilgrim tells his readers that the people of Chinabhukti had great respect for the "East Land" and that pointing to him they said one to another — "He is a man of the country of our former king"

Cunningham thinks that the capital of this country may be represented by the present Patti "a large and very old town situated 27 miles to the north east of Kasur and 10 miles to the west of the Bias river" ¹ But notwithstanding the presence of the ubiquitous brick bats and old wells, this proposed identification need not be seriously considered It is not at all probable that the name Chinabhukti was ever generally known or used for the district to which it is applied by the pilgrim He seems indeed to be the only authority for the name Not only so but a copyist's error in transcribing it has unfortunately been perpetuated In the *Life*, and in one place in the old texts of the *Records* the first syllable of the word was left out by mistake It was evidently this mistake

which led to the use of *Na puh ti* instead of *Chu na puh ti* as the name for the country next to Tekka in the Fang chih and in maps and treatises of later times

TAMASĀVANA

From the capital of Chinabhukti the pilgrim went south east above 500 *li* to the *Ta mo su fa na* (Tamasavana) Monastery. This had above 300 Brethren of the Sarvastivadin School who led strict pure lives and were thorough students of the Hinayana. Here each of the 1000 Buddhas of the Bhadrakalpa assembles a congregation of devas and men and preaches the profound excellent Religion. Here also in the 800 year after Sakyamuni Buddhas nirvana the Śāstramaster *Ka to yen na* composed his "Fa chih lun. This monastery had an Asoka tope above 200 feet high beside which were the spots on which the four Past Buddhas had sat and walked up and down. Small topes and large caves in unknown number succeeded each other closely all having relics of arhats who since the beginning of this kalpa here passed away for ever. Surrounding the Hill Monastery for a circuit of twenty *li* were hundreds and thousands of Buddha relic topes very close together.

In the Life the distance from the capital of Chinabhukti to the Tamasavana monastery in 50 *li* or only one tenth of the distance here given. Our pilgrim's *Ta mo su fa na* is undoubtedly the Tamasavana (or Tamasavana) or "Darkness wood" of other authors. This was apparently the name both of the monastery and of the district in which it was situated. The monastery must have been at an early date a noted seat of Buddhism as Brethren from it were among the great Doctors invited by king Asoka to his Council. The description of the summoning of this Council is given in several treatises from one original apparently. It is interesting to note the agreement and difference of these treatises in the matter of the Tamasavana. In the Divyavadana the reading is "Tamasavane" and the Ajuwangchung in agreement with this has *An lin* or "Darkness wood", the interpretation given by our pilgrim. But the Tsa a-han ching instead of Tamasavana has *To po poh* which is evidently for Tapova the original being probably Tapovana. In the A yü wang chuan the

"*dhiras Tamasavane*" is rendered by *Chou ye wu wei* lit "day night fearless", that is, the brave of the Day night.¹ The phrase in ordinary Chinese would mean "day and night without fear", but here the term *chou ye* is used in the sense of "the darkness of day". It corresponds to the *chow an* or "Day darkness" of another treatise and both terms evidently stand for *Tamasa*.²

With reference to this Monastery we read that the Buddha accompanied by the faithful yaksha Vajrapāni passed over a dark green wood on his way through the air to convert the Dragon king Apalala. Addressing the Yaksha Buddha prophesied that in that place 100 years after his decease a vihara would be erected to be called 'Darkness wood' which should be preeminent for absorbed meditation.³

The Śāstra master here called *Ka to yen na* (Katyayana) was Katyāyaniputra, and his śāstra here mentioned exists in two Chinese translations one of which is by our pilgrim.⁴

For the words in the text here interpreted as meaning—'Surrounding the Hill monastery for a circuit of twenty *li* were hundreds and thousands of Buddha relic topes very close together', Juhen has— "Les couvents, qui s'élèvent tout autour de la montagne occupent un circuit de vingt *li*. On compte par centaines et par milliers les *stoupas* qui renferment des *che li* (Carras reliques) du Bouddha. Ils sont très rapprochés et confondent mutuellement leur ombre". This rendering seems to be inadmissible and to give a meaning very different from what the author intended to convey. Yuan chuang does not make the absurd statement that there were Buddhist monasteries for twenty *li* all round a hill, but he tells us that there were thousands of relic topes all round the "Hill monastery". The "Hill

¹ Divyav p 399. A yu wang ching ch 3. Isa a han ching ch 23. A yu wang chuan ch 1 (*chou ye wu wei* 晝夜無畏).

² Ta chuang yen lun ch 10 (No 1182) *chow an* 長闇.

³ Sar Vin Yao shih ch 9.

⁴ Bun No 1273 1275.

monastery" was the Tamasavana; and it was so called by the pilgrim because it was isolated, and not subject to a superior establishment. This use of the word *shan* (山) in the senses of *wild, independent, rustic* is very common, and the phrase *shan-la-lan* meets us again in these Records. The monastery Tamasāvana as our pilgrim describes it was a spacious comprehensive establishment. It had accommodation for 300 Brethren it contained a tope and sacred places of the Buddhas, and the caves and memorial topes of numerous deceased arhats, and then all round it for twenty *li* were many thousand Buddha relic topes. In other treatises the establishment is called a *Wood* or *Hill*, and it was evidently different in character from ordinary viharas.

SHÊ LAN-TA LO (JALANDHARA)

From Tamasavana a journey of about 140 *li* north east brought the pilgrim to the *She lan ta lo* (Jalandhara) country. This country was above 1000 *li* east to west and 800 *li* north to south, and its capital was twelve or thirteen *li* in circuit. The region yielded much upland rice with other grain, trees were widely spread, and fruits and flowers abounded, the climate was warm, the people had truculent ways and a mean contemptible appearance, but they were in affluent circumstances. There were above 50 Monasteries with more than 2000 Brethren who made special studies in the Great and Little Vehicles. There were three Deva Temples with more than 500 professed non Buddhists of the Pasupata sect. A former king of this country had been a patron of non Buddhistic systems, afterwards he met an arhat and learning Buddhism from him became a zealous believer. Thereupon the king of "Mid India" appreciating his sincere faith gave him sole control of matters relating to Buddhism in all India. In this capacity (as Protector of the Faith) the king of Jalandhara rewarded and punished the monks without distinction of persons and without private feeling. He also travelled through all India and erected topes or monasteries at all sacred places.

The *She-lan-ta-lo* of this passage was long ago restored as Jalandhara, the name of a city and district in the north of the Panjab¹. But it may be noted that the Life here

and the Fang-chih have *She-lan-ta-na* as if for Jālandhana¹; in another passage the Life has *She-lan-ta*, and this is the form of the name used by I-ching². In the Sung pilgrim's itinerary the name is given Tso-lan-t'o-la (左捺陀) that is, Jālandhana³.

Of the 50 Monasteries here mentioned one was doubtless the Nagaradhana vihāra mentioned in the Life. In it Yuan-chuang found the learned Brother named Chandrarvarma with whom he spent four months studying the "Chung-shih-fên-vibhāṣā", or Commentary on the "Chung-shih-fên-Abhidharma-lun" already noticed.

Our pilgrim, it will be noticed, represents the Brethren in this district as "making special studies in the Mahāyāna and Hinayāna". His words are *ta-hsiao-êrh-shêng-chuan-mên-hsi-hsio* (大小二乘專門習學). These words are translated by Julien—"que l'étude particulière du grand et du petit Véhicule partage en deux classes distinctes". This is a very unhappy rendering and the interpolation of the words "partage en deux classes distinctes" is unwarranted and spoils the author's statement. What he wished us to understand was that the Brethren in the various Monasteries devoted themselves as they pleased to particular lines of study in the Mahāyānist and Hinayānist books.

According to the Life our pilgrim revisited Jālandhara, and on that occasion was well treated by the king of "North-India" who had his seat of government in the city with this name. The king is called Wu-ti or Wu-ti-to (烏地多) restored as Udito. It was evidently the same king who treated courteously, and entertained hospitably, another Chinese pilgrim whose name was *Hsüan-chao* (玄照)⁴ whom we have met already.

¹ Life ch. 5 and J. I. p. 260—1.

² Hsi-yü-ch'iu, ch. 1 and Chavannes Mémoires pp. 14, 15 and notes.

³ Ma I. I., ch. 338.

⁴ Hsi-yü-ch'iu I. c.

KU LU TO

From Jalandhara the pilgrim travelled north east, across mountains and ravines by hazardous paths for above 700 *li* and came to the country which he calls *Kulto*. This region which was above 3000 *li* in circuit was entirely surrounded by mountains. Its capital was 14 or 15 *li* in circuit. It had a rich soil and yielded regular crops and it had a rich vegetation abounding in fruits and flowers. As it was close to the Snow Mountains it had a great quantity of valuable medicines. It yielded gold silver red copper crystal lenses and bell metal (*ten shih*). The climate grew gradually cold and there was little frost or snow. There were in the country twenty Buddhist Monasteries with above 1000 Brethren of whom the most were Mahayanists a few adhering to the Schools (that is belonging to the Hinayāna system). Of Deva Temples there were fifteen and the professed non Buddhists lived pell mell. On both sides of the steep mountain passes were caves [which had been] the lodging places of arhats and rishis. In this country was a tope erected by Asoka to mark the place at which the Buddha on his visit to the district had preached and received members into his church.

In the statement here made about the climate of the country the words "grew gradually cold" are in the original *chuen han* (漸寒). This is the reading of the A and C texts but the B and D texts instead of *chuen* have *yu* (逾) meaning *passing excessive* which is manifestly wrong. The latter was the reading of Julien's text and as it did not suit the words which follow—"there was little (*wei* 微) frost or snow, he decided to substitute *cheng* (徵) for the *wei* of his text. He then translates—"il tombe souvent du givre et de la neige. But this violent alteration seems to be unnecessary and *wei* is the reading of all the texts.

In the *Fang chih* the name of this country is given as *Ku lu to lo* and also *Ku lu lo*. Cunningham considers that the distance and bearing of the district from Jalandhara correspond 'exactly with the position of *Kullu* in the upper valley of the Byas river', and he regards it as the *Kuluta* of other writers'. This latter term is the name

of a country in the north-west division of the Brihat Sam-hita¹ As the Sanskrit word *lula* means, along with other things a *heap* or *collection* the *Ku-lu-to* country is perhaps the *Chi-chu* (積聚) or "Accumulation" district of the Sar-vata Vinaya Buddha there goes from the Tamasāvāna to the Chi-chi district where he converts and receives into his church a Yaksha who afterwards builds a mona-stery The district also obtained a relic of the Buddha's body for which a tope was built called the *Chi-chu* Tope²

The pilgrim now tells us of two countries which he did not visit. Going north, he writes, from Kuluto for above 1800 *li* you come to the *Ko-hu-lo* country still farther north above 2000 *li* was the *Mo-lo-so* (or *sha*) country, the roads being very bad and cold

Cunningham regards the *Lo-hu-lo* of this passage as "clearly the *Lho-yul* of the Tibetans and the *Lāhul* of the people of Kullu and other neighbouring states". The pilgrim's *Mo-lo-so*, Cunningham says— "must certainly be *Ladak*." He regards the *so* of the name as a mistake for *p'o*, and *Mo-lo-p'o*, he says, would give us *Mar-po* "the actual name of the province of *Ladak*". A note to our Chinese text here tells us that another name for *Mo-lo-so* was *San-p'o-ha* The two countries here mentioned were of course outside of India

SHE-TO-TU-LU.

From Kuluto the pilgrim travelled south, over a high mountain and across a great river, for above 700 *li* and reached the country called *She-to-tu-lu* This was above 2000 *li* in circuit, bounded on the west by a large river (supposed to be the Sutley) and its capital was 17 or 18 *li* in circuit It was an agricultural and fruit producing country, and yielded much gold, silver, and other precious substances The inhabitants were in good circumstances and led moral lives observing social distinctions and adhering devoutly to Buddhism In and about the capital were ten mona-steries but they were desolate and the Brethren were very few About three *li* to the south east of the capital was an Asoka

¹ Ind Ant Vol XXII p 182

² Sar Vin Yao shih, ch 9

tope above 200 feet high and beside it were traces of spots on which the Four Past Buddhas had sat and walked up and down

Nothing seems to be known of the country and city here described, and the suggestions for identification requiring some tampering with the text are not of much value¹ The restoration of the name as Śatadru has been generally accepted, but the transcription seems to require rather Śatadure, and this is perhaps better than Śatadru which is the name of a river (the Sutlej) the characters, however, may represent Śatadru.

PO LI-YE TA LO (PARYATRA)

From Śatadru the pilgrim proceeded south west, and after a journey of over 800 *li* reached the country called *Po-li-ye ta lo* (Paryatra) This country was above 3000 and its capital about 14 *li* in circuit. It had good crops of spring wheat and other grain including a peculiar kind of rice which in 60 days was ready for cutting Oxen and sheep were numerous and fruits and flowers were scarce the climate was hot and the people had harsh ways they did not esteem learning and were not Buddhists The king who was of the *Fei s'he* (吠舍) (Vaisya stock) was a man of courage and military skill There were eight Buddhist monasteries in a bad state of ruin the Brethren who were very few in number were Hinayanists There were above ten Deva Temples and the professed non Buddhists were above 1000 in number

The district here described has been identified by M Rемаud "with Paryatra or Bairat" and this identification has been accepted²

The rice of this country which grew and ripened in 60 days could not have been the ordinary upland or dry rice, as Jo thinks, for that was well known to the pilgrim as a product of his own country and of several lands through which he had recently passed It must have been a special variety, as the Cochin China rice, to which Julien refers, is a peculiar variety

¹ See Julien III p 335 A. G. I p 144

² Julien III. p 336 A. G. I p 337.

MATHURĀ

From Paryatra, the pilgrim continues, a journey of above 500 *li* eastwards brought him to the country called *Mo* (or *Mei*)-*tu lo* (or Mathura).

This name is translated in some Chinese glossaries by "Peacock", as if *Mayura*. It is also said to be derived from *madhu honey*, as if the spelling of the name were *Madhurā*. Mr Growse considers that the word is probably connected with the Sanskrit root *math*, "to churn", "the churn forming a prominent feature in all poetical descriptions of the local scenery".¹ In connection with this it is interesting to observe that in a Buddhist scripture a sick bhikshu is represented as unable to obtain milk at Mathur.² There was also a story of a great giant *Madhu* from whom the name of the city and district was derived. This also points to the form *Madhurā*.

Yuan chuang describes the country of Mathura as being above 5000 *li* in circuit, its capital being above twenty *li* in circuit. The soil he says was very fertile and agriculture was the chief business. mango trees were grown in orchards at the homesteads of the people. there were two kinds of this fruit one small and becoming yellow when ripe, and the other large and remaining green. The country produced also a fine striped cotton cloth and gold. its climate was hot. the manners and customs of the inhabitants were good. the people believed in the working of karma and paid respect to moral and intellectual eminence. There were in the district above twenty Buddhist monasteries, and above 2000 Brethren who were diligent students of both "Vehicles". There were also five Deva Temples and the professed adherents of the different non-Buddhist sects lived pell mell.

When *Fa hsien* visited this country he also found 20 monasteries but he estimated the number of Brethren as about 3000.³

We now come to a passage which presents some serious difficulties. It seems to be faulty both in form and sub

¹ Growse's *Mathura* p. 73 (2^d ed.) See below p. 311

² *A yu wang ching* ch. 9

³ *Fo kuo chi* ch. 16

stance and it has perplexed native scholars. For the present we may render it as follows

There are three topes all built by Asoka very numerous traces left by the Four Past Buddhas topes (or a tope) for the relics of the following holy disciples of Sakya Ju lai viz Sariputra, Mudgalaputra Purnamaitriyaniputra Upali Ananda and Rahula topes for Manjusri and the other Pusas. In the "Three Longs" of every year and on the six Fastdays of every month the Brethren with mutual rivalry make up parties and taking materials of worship with many valuables repair to the images of their special patrons. The Abhidharma Brethren offer worship to Sariputra the Samadhist to Mudgalaputra the Sutraists to Purnamaitriyaniputra the Vinayists to Upali the bhikshunis to Ananda and the sramaneras to Rahula and the Mahayanists to the various Pusas. On these days the topes vie with each other in worship banners and sunshades are displayed the incense makes clouds and the flowers are scattered in showers sun and moon are obscured and the mountain ravines convulsed the king and his state smen devote themselves to good works.

The difficulties of this passage begin with the first sentence and a native scholar took from the paragraph a very different meaning from that here given. He understood the author to state that there were three Asoka topes viz one for the numerous traces left by the Four Past Buddhas one for the holy disciples of the Buddha and one for the Pusas. There is something to be said in favour of this interpretation but it does not quite suit either the construction or the context. With the present interpretation we have the bald statement that there were three Asoka topes. The Fang chih places these within the capital, but our text does not give any information as to their situation, or structure, or the purposes for which they were erected. So also the next clause—"very many traces of the Four Past Buddhas"—seems to require a *vis* here either the — "viz a tope for" of the Chinese scholar, or the "On montre" which Julien prefixes. Then, as to the topes for the relics of the great disciples the term for relics is *shen* (身) lit. "left bodies", and Julien translates *shen stupa* by "Divers stoupas renfermant les corps". But *shen* here, as in other passages, means only the *ashes bones* or other relics left after crem

ation, *shên* being used as the equivalent of the Sanskrit word for *body*, Śarīra, which is also used in the sense of a "bodily relic". Then we have this difficulty, that not only was no one of the great disciples here named buried at Mathura, but also there is no authority for stating that the relics of any one of them were conveyed to this district. Moreover, as the Fang-chih points out, Rāhula was supposed not to have tasted death. This treatise, accordingly suggests that the word for *body* (*shên*) should not be taken here in its ordinary sense, but should be understood as meaning a visible symbol, such as an image or other likeness. The reader will observe that our pilgrim represents the worshippers as paying reverence, not to the topes, but to images or pictures apparently set up for the occasion. Fa-hsien in his general survey of "Mid-India" including the Māthurā district, tells us that at the Buddhist vihāras there were topes to Śāriputra, Madgalyāyana (Yuan-chuang's Mudgalaputra), Ananda, and to the Sūtras, the Vinaya, and the Abhidharma. To some of these topes services were offered, but he describes the Śrāmaneras as making offerings to Rāhula not to his tope, and he describes the Mahāyānists as offering worship to "Prajñāparamitā, Mañjuśrī, and Kuan-shi-yin".¹

Then our pilgrim is perhaps wrong in representing the Abhidharmists as worshipping Śāriputra, the Samādhist as worshipping Mudgalaputra, and the Sūtra Brethren as worshipping Pūrṇa-Maitriyāniputra. Śāriputra was distinguished among the disciples for his great spiritual wisdom or prajñā, but he had nothing to do with the Abhidharma, which did not come into existence until after his death. So Mahāmadgalyāyana was great in magic, in his superhuman powers, but not in samādhi. Maitriyāniputra is sometimes praised as a good expounder of the Master's teaching but he is not specially associated with the sūtras. Julien takes Mañjuśrī to be one of the holy disciples of the Buddha, and the author of Fang-chih; and others

¹ Fo-kuo-chi.

have taken the same meaning out of the text. But Man juśri was not a human being he was one of the great Bodhisattvas, often figuring as first or chief of all these Mahāyāna creations

This passage tells us that the Brethren went in parties to offer worship to their respective patrons in the "Three Longs" of the year and the Six Fast days of each month. By the "Three Longs" we are probably to understand the first, fifth, and ninth months of each year which were called the "Three Long Months" and the "Three Long Fasts". The Six Fast days were the 8th, 14th, 15th of each half month or the 8th, 14th, 15th, 23th, 29th, 30th of each month. This has been made known to us by Julien who obtained his information from a late Chinese Buddhist compilation. In this work under the heading "Nine Fast Days" we find the above three month fasts and six monthly day fasts given as making up the "Nine Fast-days". This seems to be rather a peculiar way of reckoning and Julien gets over the difficulty by changing *month* into "in the month", and making the "nine Fast-days" literally nine days. But then, what is to be done with the Fasts called the "Three long months" or "Three long Fasts"? The reason for the religious observance of these periods by the Buddhist clergy and laity is given in several books. In the three months specified Indra (or according to some Visvamitra, or according to others the four Deva-fājas) by means of secret emissaries made a careful examination into the conduct and modes of life of the inhabitants of Jāmbudvīpa (India). So all the people of that continent were on their best behaviour in these months, they abstained from flesh and wine, and even from food lawful in ordinary times, and they offered worship and practised good works. They also kept holiday and visited the shrines of their divinities to pray for earthly blessings. In these months there were no executions of criminals and no slaughter of animals was allowed.¹ Thus

¹ Fo shuo chai ching (No 57) Shih shih yao lan ch 3 Fo tsu tung chi ch 33 (No 1651)

the "Three Long Fasts" were evidently in their origin a popular rather than a Buddhist institution, and Buddhism may have adopted them to a certain extent as a matter of expediency. They are never mentioned, however, in the canonical treatises

The "Six Fast days of every Month" were also popular religious holidays before the time of the Buddha. According to some accounts these days, like the three months, were devoted by Indra's messengers to a roving inspection of the moral and religious conduct of the people of India¹. The people on their part were careful on these days to fast, and offer worship, and do good works, in the hope of receiving material recompense such as fine weather and good crops. This sort of observance was called the "Cow-herd's Fast". But the Parivṛājakas of the Tīrthikas devoted these six days to the public reading of their scriptures, and the Buddha followed their example. He ordained that on these days the Pāṭimokkha should be recited in a select congregation of the Brethren, and he seems also to have appointed the reading of the Dharma on these days, the Uposatha days, to the people².

Our pilgrim is apparently wrong in representing the Buddhist Brethren as spending the first, fifth, and ninth months in the manner here indicated. The fifth month was part of the Retreat from the rains, and the Brethren could not break up Retreat for a whole month and go away to a tope or a monastery to pay respect to their special patrons and enjoy themselves with their companions. Fa-hsien makes the festival of Patron-worship occur once a year after Retreat, each set having its own day, and this is more likely to be correct than Yuan chuang's account. According to Fa-hsien also it was the people who provided the illuminations and flowers for the topes while the clergy preached. These topes, moreover, in his narrative throughout the region of which he is writing were apparently

¹ Ssu tien wang ching (No. 722) Tseng yi a han chung ch 16

² 'Vinaya Texts' (S. B. E.) Vol. 1 pp. 239, 240

attached to or near monasteries, but the topos of our pilgrim's account do not seem to have been connected with any Buddhist establishment

Returning to our pilgrim's description of this district we read that—

going east from the capital five or six *li* one comes to a "hill monastery" the chamber of which was quarried in a steep bank, a narrow defile being used to form its entrance. This monastery had been made by the venerable Upagupta and it enclosed a tope with a finger nail relic of the Buddha. Through the north rock wall of the monastery was a cave above 20 feet high by 30 feet wide, within which were piled up fine four inch slabs of wood (that is, talies). When the Venerable Upagupta was preaching and converting, every married couple which attained arhatship put down a tally here but for single members of families although they became arhats no record of the fact was kept.

The words for "a hill-monastery" in this passage are *yu-shan-ka-lan* and Julien translates them "un *lia lan* situe sur une montagne". As has been seen a "hill *ka-lan*" was a rural non-descript vihara not attached to any superior establishment. Then Julien makes the pilgrim locate the Tally-cave "dans une caverne qui est au nord de ce *kia lan*". The text has *ka-lan-pei-yen-hsuen-yu-shih-shih* (伽藍北巖間有石室) that is, in the steep rock on the north of the *ka-lan* is a cave. The word *yen* does not mean *une caverne* but a steep wall of rock, and the entrance to the Tally-cave was through the rock which formed the north side of the Vihāra-Cave. This interpretation of the text will be found to agree with descriptions given in other treatises.

The site of the Upagupta monastery, as we may call the Hill *ka-lan*, of our author's narrative was apparently the place called the Urumunda (or Urumanda or Rurumanda) Hill, and the Rimurunda of Mr Rockhill's Tibetan text. The name Urumunda is rendered in Chinese by "Great Cream" (大醒酥), its literal signification¹, and near the hill there was a "Great Cream" town or village. To describe or indicate this hill various forms of ex-

¹ A *yu wang ching*, ch 9

pression are used. Thus seen from a distance it was "an azure streak", it was also a "line of green forest", and a wood of green trees". On or at this hill, according to some authorities the brothers Naṭa and Baṭa constructed the Nāṭabāṭa vihara to which they afterwards invited Upagupta when he came to live at Mathura. This is supposed to be the "Hill ka lan" of our pilgrim but it may have been a separate establishment. This "Hill ka lan" was evidently the house or vihara of Upagupta on the Urumāṇḍa hill, and it was probably a large natural cave improved by art to constitute a monastery. Connected with the monastery was the cave in which the disciples converted by Upagupta's teaching on their attainment of arhatship deposited each a slip of wood or bamboo.¹ This cave is also represented as a 'made house' but this is evidently a mistake.² Its dimensions vary in different books, one authority making it 18 *chou* long, by 12 *chou* wide, and 7 *chou* high.³ In our pilgrim's description we should probably regard 'above 20 feet high' as a mistake for "above 20 feet long" other writers giving the length as 24 or 27 feet, the height being about 9 or 10 feet. Then Yuan chuang's statement, that tallies were kept only of married couples attaining arhatship is very silly and does not agree with the accounts in other Chinese books. According to these every one who through Upagupta's teaching and guiding became an arhat added his tally to the pile. Upagupta had marvellous success as a Buddhist missionary at Mathura. he converted many thousands of lay people and through him 18000 disciples attained arhatship. When he died all the tallies deposited by these arhats were taken away and used at his cremation.⁴ Yet Yuan chuang would have us believe that he saw them still filling up the cave.

¹ Sar Vin Yao shih ch 9

² A ju wang chuan ch 5

³ Sar Vin l c The shou (肘) was about 1½ foot. See also A ju wang chung ch 6

⁴ Sar Vin l c Tār S 14f

In some books the hill on which was the Nāṭabata-vihāra occupied by Upagupta is called Śīra or Ūśīra, although we also have mention of the Uśīra hill without any reference to a cave or monastery¹ This Uśīra hill was at the side of the "Urumanda Hill" and the latter name may have included the two hills and the wood or forest adjoining

General Cunningham considered the site of Upagupta's monastery to be that of the Id gah or Katra of the present Muttra, and this opinion has been adopted by others But it is undoubtedly wrong A later investigator, Mr Growse, writes "General Cunningham in his Archaeological Report, has identified the Upagupta monastery with the Yasa vihara inside the Katra but in all probability he would not now adhere to this theory, for, at the time when he advanced it he had never visited the Kankālī Tīlā, and was also under the impression that the Fort always had been, as it now is, the centre of the city Even then, to maintain his theory, he was obliged to have recourse to a very violent expedient, and in the text of the Chinese pilgrim to alter the word 'east' to 'west', because, he writes, "a mile to the east would take us to the low ground on the opposite bank of the Jamuna, where no ruins exist", forgetting apparently Fa Hian's distinct statement that in his time there were monasteries on both sides of the river, and being also unaware that there are heights on the left bank at Isapur and Mahābān, where Buddhist remains have been found The topographical descriptions of the two pilgrims may be reconciled with existing facts without any tampering with the text of the narrative Taking the Katra, or the adjoining shrine of Bhutesvar, as the omphalos of the ancient city and the probable site of the great stupa of Śāriputra, a short distance to the east will bring us to the Kankālī Tīlā, i e the monastery of Upagupta"² This is very positive but not quite con-

¹ Tar l c Ta pei chung (No 117)

² Growse op c p 112

vincing, and where did Mr Growse get his "great stupa of Śīrīputra"?

Thus Upagupta monastery is apparently the "Cream-village" vīhāra of a Vinaya treatise, one of the many Buddhist establishments mentioned as being in the Mathurā district.¹ It may also perhaps be the Guha vīhara of the Lion Pillar inscriptions.² We find it called the Naṭika saṅghārama, and the Naṭabaṭa (or Naṭibaṭi)-vīhāra, as already stated, and the Natabhaṭikāranyāyatana of the Divyavadana.³ It was evidently in a hill among trees and not far from the city of Mathurā, but Yuan-chuang seems to be the only authority for placing it about a mile to the east of the city. This would apparently put the Urumanda hill on the east side of the Jumna, and the situation assigned to the Monkey Tope in the next paragraph agrees with this supposition.

The pilgrim's narrative proceeds to state that to the south-east of the cave (that is the Cave monastery) and 24 or 25 li (about five miles) from it was a large dried up pond beside which was a tope. This was the place Yuan chuang tells us, at which when the Buddha was once walking up and down a monkey offered him some honey. The Buddha caused the honey to be mixed with water and then distributed among his disciples. Hereupon the monkey gambolled with delight, fell into the pit (or ditch) and died and by the religious merit of this offering was born as a human being.

The story of a monkey or a flock of monkeys (or apes) presenting wild honey to the Buddha is told with variations in several Buddhist scriptures. In some the scene of the story is laid near Vaiśālī⁴ (and our pilgrim, it will be seen, tells of a troop of monkeys offering honey to the Buddha at this place), in some at Śrāvastī⁵,

¹ Sêng chi lu ch 8

² J R A S for 1894 p 526

³ Divyav ch XXVI and p 385 Bur Int p 378 Ta pei chung

⁴ Chung a han chung ch 8 Sar Vin Yao shuh ch 18 Of Records ch 7

⁵ Hsien yu chung ch 12 Der Weise u d T S 347

and in some at the Natika village¹ The following account of the whole matter is taken chiefly from the "Hsien yü ching" The Buddha was once visited at Śrāvastī by a Brahmin householder who was son-less and wished to know whether he was to die so Buddha consoled him with promise of a son who should become a distinguished member of the church In due time the son was born, and because it was observed that about the time of his birth the honey-vessels in the house became full of honey he received the name "Honey prevailing" In Chinese the name is *Mi sheng* (蜜勝) and the Sanskrit original is written *Mo lou lo-se chih*, that is *Madhurasachi* or "Sweet Influence", viz born with the good omen of honey This boy in time became a disciple of the Buddha who explained to Ananda that *Mi sheng* in a long past previous existence had been a bhikṣu, that he had then once been disrespectful to a senior Brother The senior rebuked him gently and *Mi shēng* was penitent, but he had to suffer punishment for his thoughtless rude language by 500 births as a monkey It was in the last of these births that the incident of the honey offering occurred The Buddha and his disciples had halted for rest one day under some trees by a tank not far from Śrāvastī Here a monkey came and took Buddha's bowl and soon after returned with it full of honey and offered it to the Buddha The latter sent the monkey back first to remove the insects from the honey and afterwards to add water to it When the honey was thus "pure", that is, fit for bhikṣus use Buddha accepted it and distributed it among his disciples The monkey was now up a tree again, and seeing his honey accepted and distributed he frisked about with delight until he fell and was drowned in the pit below But by the merit of the gift of honey he was immediately born again as a human creature and became the disciple *Mi shēng* In another treatise the name of the bhikṣu

¹ Sar Vin P o sēng shih ch 12 This may be the Natika of Uru manda the village and the monastery having the same name

is given as Madhu-Vasishṭha, his family name being Vasishṭha¹, and in another work he is called *Mi-hsing* or "Honey-nature".² In one book the monkey skips with delight but does not fall into the water³, and in another he dies and is born again in Paradise⁴.

The story of the monkey and the honey, here repeated by the pilgrim, being told of Mathurā as an explanation of the name, must have arisen at a time when the form used was Madhura. There is also another monkey or ape story connected with Mathurā. In a previous existence, the Buddha once explained, Upagupta was born as a monkey (or ape) and became the chief of a troop of monkeys living at Urumanda. As such he made offerings and shewed much kindness to 500 Pratyeka Buddhas who were living on another part of Urumanda. The merit of his conduct to these worthies brought the monkey birth as a human being in his next existence, and in it, as the bhikṣu Upagupta, he rose to be a most successful preacher, a peerless saint, and a Buddha in all but the bodily signs⁵.

The pilgrim goes on to narrate that to the north of the dried up pond, and not far from it, was a large wood in which were footsteps of the Four Past Buddhas, left by them as they walked up and down. Hard by these were tope to mark the places at which Śariputra and the others of the Buddha's 1250 great disciples had practised absorbed meditation. There were also memorials of the Buddha's frequent visits to this district for the purpose of preaching.

The "large wood" of this passage, which lay between the Upagupta Monastery and the Dried-up Pond, may be the forest generally mentioned in connection with Urumanda. But it is at least doubtful whether any of the 1250 disciples ever practised samādhi in this neighbour-

¹ Sar Vin P o sêng shih, ch 12

² Sar Vin Yao shih ch 18

³ Chung a han chung, ch 8

⁴ Sêng chi lu, ch 29

⁵ Fu-fa-tsang yin yuan chung, ch 3 Sar Vin Yao shih ch 9
Divyav Ch XXVI

hood The Urumanda district was a great resort of ascetics devoted to serenity of mind and prolonged meditation, but this was after the time of Upagupta. Then the Buddha's visits to the Mathurā district do not seem to have been numerous, even if we accept records of doubtful authenticity. We are told that he expressed a dislike to the country which had, he said, five defects. The ground was uneven, it was covered with stones and brick bats, it abounded with prickly shrubs, the people took solitary meals, and there were too many women.¹ We find mention of the Buddha visiting the country on one occasion and lodging in a mango-tope near the Bhadra river.² On another occasion he lodged with his disciples in Ass Yaksha's palace (or the monastery of Ass Yaksha) which was apparently outside the capital.³ He also passed through this country with Ananda when returning from his mission to "North-India", going among the *yung chun-jen* (兪 鄭 人) or Surasenas until he reached Mathurā city.

It is worthy of notice that in his account of Mathura and the surrounding district the pilgrim does not give the name of any hill, or river, or town, or Buddhist establishment in the country. His information about the district is meagre and his remarks about the Buddhist objects of interest in it seem to be confused and to a certain extent second hand. He apparently did not visit the capital, and made only a hurried journey across a part of the country. It seems very strange that he does not mention by name the famous Urumunda (or Urumanda) Hill, so intimately connected, as we have seen, with the introduction of Buddhism into the district, and evidently an old place of resort for contemplative ascetics of other religious

¹ Sar Vin Yao shih, ch 10

² Tea a han chung, ch 2 and 24. The mango topes seem to have all disappeared from the Mathura district.

³ Sar Vin Yao shih ch 10. This building was properly not a monastery, but a hall or temple. It was apparently on the occasion of the Buddha's returning from the north that he made the stay at Mathura, converting the wicked Yakshinis, and preaching his religion.

systems. Nor does he mention the great river which flowed past the east side of Mathurā city. Fa-hsien mentions this river which he calls *Pu-na* (捕那) short for the Yao (搖)-*pu-na* (Yabuna) of his translations. Our pilgrim in his translations and in this *chuan* transcribes the name *Yen-mou-na* (Yamunā). Then he does not seem to have heard of such wellknown Buddhist establishments as the vihāra of the *Hsien-jen* (仙人)-*chu-lao* or Rishi village (or town), or the vihāra of the Grove the *Ts'ung-lin* (叢林)-*ssū*. The former was on the east and the latter on the west side of the Jumna.¹ *Ts'ung-lin* is supposed to be for the Sanskrit Pinda-vana: it could not have been Kṛṣṇa's Vṛindā-vana, which was on the opposite side of the river.

¹ Sêng-chu-lu, ch. 8.

CHAPTER X

CHUAN IV CONT^D

STHANESVAR TO KAPITHA

From the Mathura country the pilgrim according to his narrative proceeded north east and after a journey of above 500 *li* reached the *Sa t'a m ssu fa lo* (Sthanesvara) country. He tells us this country was above 1000 *li* in circuit and its capital with the same name apparently was above twenty *li* in circuit. The soil was rich and fertile and the crops were abundant the climate was warm the manners and customs of the people were illiberal the rich families vied with each other in extravagance. The people were greatly devoted to magical arts and highly prized outlandish accomplishments the majority pursued trade and few were given to farming rarities from other lands were collected in this country. There were (that is at the capital apparently) three Buddhist monasteries with above 700 professed Buddhists all Hinayanists. There were also above 100 Deva Temples and the non Buddhists were very numerous.

The capital the pilgrim goes on to describe was surrounded for 200 *li* by a district called the "Place of Religious Merit — *Fu-ti* (附地). The origin of this name Yuan chuang learned at the place to be as follows. The Five Indias were once divided between two sovereigns who fought for mastery invading each others territory and keeping up unceasing war. At length in order to settle the question of superiority, and so give peace to their subjects the kings agreed between themselves to have a decisive action. But their subjects were dissatisfied and refused to obey their kings commands. Thereupon the king [of that part of India which included Sthanesvara] thought of an expedient. Seeing it was useless to let his subjects have a voice in his proposals and knowing that the people would be influenced by the supernatural, he secretly sent a roll of silk to a clever brahmin commanding him to come to the palace. On his arrival there the brahmin was kept in an inner chamber and there he

composed (that is, by the King's inspiration) a Dharma sūtra (that is, a treatise on Duty). This book the king then hid in a rock cave, where it remained for several years until vegetation covered the spot. Then one morning the king informed his ministers at an audience that he had been enlightened by Indra, who told him in a dream about an inspired book hidden in a certain hill. The book was brought forth, and officials and people were enraptured. By the king's orders the contents of the scripture were made known to all and the sum of them was briefly this—

Life and death are a shoreless ocean with ebb and flow in endless alternation. Intelligent creatures cannot save themselves from the eddies in which they are immersed. I have an admirable device for saving them from their woes, and it is this—Here we have for 200 *li* round this city the place of religious merit for generations of the ancient sovereigns, but as its evidences have been effaced in the long lapse of time, people have ceased to reflect on the efficacy of the place, and so have been submerged in the ocean of misery with no one to save them from perishing. Now all who being wise, go into battle and die fighting, will be reborn among men slaying many they will be innocent and will receive divine blessings: obedient grand children and filial children serving their parents while sojourning in this district will obtain infinite happiness. As the meritorious service is little, and the reward it obtains great, why miss the opportunity? Once the human body is lost there are the three states of dark oblivion: hence every human being should be diligent in making good karma, thus all who engage in battle will look on death as a return home—

The king ordered an enrolment of heroes for battle, and an engagement took place on this ground. The bodies of those killed in battle were strewn about in confused masses so great was the number of the slain and the huge skeletons of these heroes still cover the district, which popular tradition calls the Place of Religious Merit.

The whole of this passage about the "Place of Religious Merit" is curious and interesting, giving, as has been pointed out by others, the story which our pilgrim heard on the spot about the wars of the Kauravas and Pandavas. It reads like an extract from the Bhagavadgītā. The passage which, in the present rendering of it, is treated as being the sum of the inspired teaching of the sūtra, is made by Julien, in his version, to be a proclamation by the king of

Sthāneśvara. The last clause of the passage is treated by him as a separate sentence and he translates it thus—“*Li-dessus, tous les hommes combattirent avec ardeur et coururent joyeusement à la mort*”, that is, before the king called on the people to enlist in his service. This treatment of the text seems to be a very unfortunate one as Yuan-chuang makes a clear distinction between the counsel of the Dharmasūtra (*Fa ching* 法經), and the king's proceedings after the promulgation of the counsel.

Four or five *li* to the north west of the capital the pilgrim relates was an Asoka tope made of bright orange bricks and containing wonder working relics of the Buddha. Above 100 *li* south from the capital was the *Ku-hun-t'u* (in some texts *ch'a*) monastery this had high chambers in close succession and detached terraces the Buddhist Brethren in it led pure strict lives.

The *Ku-hun-t'u* (or *ch'a*) of this passage may perhaps, as has been suggested, be for Govinda. Another restoration proposed is Gokantha, and this is the name adopted by Cunningham, but it does not seem possible that the Chinese characters are a transcription of this word. Govinda is a common name for Krishna, but it may have been the name of the village in which the monastery here described was situated.

The Sthāneśvara of this passage has been identified with the modern Thānesar (Tanesar, Tanessar) in Ambala. Cunningham seems to regard this identification as beyond question¹, although in perhaps no point of distance, direction or measurement do the two places correspond. Thānesar is about 180 miles to the north north-west of Mathura², and Sthāneśvar was about 100 miles to the north-east of that place. The area of the country as given by the pilgrim is too great by one fourth and that of the “holy land” (Yuan chuang's Place of Happiness, that is Religious Merit) is too small by half. Moreover the *Fu-ti* of the Records cannot be regarded as a translation of

¹ A. G. I. p. 328 J. III. p. 339

² Alberuni Vol. I. p. 199

Dharma Kshetra, another name for the Kuru Kshetra. Besides,* this latter name designated a large plain above 100 miles to the south east of Thanésvar, and the Fu ti was all round the city Sthānesvara for only about 40 miles. Cunningham in his usual manner proposes to get over some of the difficulties by taking liberties with the pilgrim's text. It is better, however, to regard our pilgrim as being correct in his statement of distance and direction from Mathura to Sthānesvara, and as deriving his information on other matters from the Brethren in the monasteries. He seems to represent himself as going to the great monastery 100 *li* (about 20 miles) south from the capital. Had he made a journey to the south of Thanésar he would probably have told us of the celebrated Tank in the district about which Alberuni and Tavernier relate wonderful things †

SRUGHNA

The pilgrim continuing the story of his travels relates that—

from this (that is apparently Sthānesvara) he went north east for above 400 *li* and came to the country *Su lu k in na*

The Life which calls this country *Lu k in na*, makes it to be 400 *li* to the east of Sthānesvara. Our pilgrim's transcription has been restored as Śrughna, but this does not seem to be right. Another transcription is *Su lu kie (Ia) kun*, and this and the transcription in the text seem to point to an original like *Srukkin* or *Srughin*. Cunningham taking the "from this" of the text to mean from the Govinda monastery, makes the 400 *li* to be counted from that monastery and accordingly gives the distance from Sthānesvara to Śrughna as only 300 *li* ‡. But the Life and the Fang chih, make Yuan chuang start from and count from Sthānesvara, and as it seems likely that

† Alberuni Vol II p 140. Berniers Travels (Constables Or Misc) p 302

‡ A G I p. 345

Yuan chuang did not go to the Govinda monastery, I think we should understand the 'from this' of the text to mean from the capital. Cunningham identifies the city Śrughna with the modern village of Sugh which 'is surrounded on three sides by the bed of the old Jumna'. But as the measurements and distances given by Yuan chuang as usual do not agree with those required by Cunningham we may perhaps regard the identification as not quite established.

Proceeding with his description of Śrughna the pilgrim tells us that

it was above 6000 *li* in circuit bounded on the east by the Ganges and on the north by high mountains and that through the middle of it flowed the river *Yen mo na* (Jumna). The capital above 20 *li* in circuit was on the west side of the Jumna and was in a ruinous condition. In climate and natural products the country resembled Sthanesvara. The inhabitants were naturally honest they were not Buddhists they held useful learning in respect and esteemed religious wisdom. There were five Buddhist monasteries and above 1000 Buddhist ecclesiastics the majority of whom were Hinayanists a few adhering to other schools. The Brethren were expert and lucid expounders of abstract doctrines and distinguished Brethren from other lands came to them to reason out their doubts. There were 100 Deva Temples and the non Buddhists were very numerous.

The statement here that the majority of the Buddhist Brethren in Śrughna 'learned the Little Vehicle and a few studied other schools' is rather puzzling as all the Eighteen Schools (*pu*) belonged to the Hinayana. All the texts, however, agree, and the Tang chieh shews a wise discretion by omitting the difficult words. By the 'other schools' Yuan chuang may have meant the Sautrantikas and other schools which had arisen in the later development of Buddhism and were independent of the old schools and the two 'Vehicles'. The pilgrim heard expositions of the doctrines of the Sautrantikas during his stay in the country. But we must also remember that he uses the terms Mahayana and Hinayana in a manner which is apparently peculiar to himself.

The narrative proceeds — To the south east of the capital and on the west side of the Jumna outside the east gate of a large monastery was an Asoka tope at a place where the Ju lai had preached and admitted men into his church. Beside this tope was one which had hair and nail relics of the Ju lai, and round about were some tens of topes with similar relics of Sariputra, Mudgalaputra, and the other great arhats. After the Buddha's decease the people of this country had been led astray to believe in wrong religions and Buddhism had disappeared. Then Śāstra masters from other lands defeated the Tīrthikas and Brahmins in discussions, and the five monasteries already mentioned were built at the places where the discussions were held in order to commemorate the victories.

A journey of above 800 *li* east from the Jumna (that is at Srughna) brought the pilgrim to the Ganges. The source of this river, he adds, is three or four *li* wide. The river flows south east to the sea, and at its mouth it is above ten *li* wide. The waters of the river vary in colour and great waves rise in it. There are many marvellous creatures in it but they do not injure any one. Its waters have a pleasant sweet taste and a fine sand comes down with the current. In the popular literature the river is called *Fu shui* or "Happiness water" that is, the water (or river) of religious merit. Accumulated sins are effaced by a bath in the water of the river. Those who drown themselves in it are reborn in heaven with happiness. If the bones of one dead be consigned to the river that one does not go to a bad place by raising waves and fretting the stream (that is, by splashing and driving the water back) the lost soul is saved.

In the *Life* and the *Fang-chih* the pilgrim proceeds to the "Source of the Ganges" which is 800 *li* to the east of the Jumna and this is supposed to be what the pilgrim meant to state. But the context and the sequel seem to require us to take him literally as simply coming to the Ganges. It was apparently at a place to the south of the "Source of the Ganges" that he reached that river. This "Source of the Ganges" is supposed to be Gangādvāīa or Hardwar, the place where the Ganges emerges from the Sivalik mountains into the plains. The expression here rendered "the waters of the river vary in colour" is *shui-sê-Tsang-lang* (水色滄浪) that is, "the water in colour is Tsang-lang", or clear and muddy. The allusion is to

the Tsang-lang river which, as we learn from a boy's song quoted in Mencius, ran sometimes clear and sometimes muddy¹ Julien translates the words by "*La couleur de ses eaux est bleuâtre*", a rendering which is not correct from any point of view. Then as the original for *Fu-shui*, "River of religious merit" (lit Religious merit water) Julien gives Mahabhadra, which is a name for the Ganges but is not the equivalent of *Fu-shui*. This term is a literal rendering of the Sanskrit and Pali word *Punyodaka*, *merit-water*, and *Punyodaka* is the name of a river in the world beyond. The reason why the name was transferred to the Ganges is to be found in the next paragraph of our passage, in which the pilgrim describes the spiritual efficacy of the water of the river. In this paragraph the words rendered "by raising waves and fretting the stream the lost souls (or spirits) are saved" are *yang-p'o chu-lu-uang-hun huo-chi* (揚波激流亡魂獲濟). Julien connects these words with the preceding clause which states that if the bones of a dead person are consigned to the river that person does not go to a bad place, Julien making the author add — "*pendant que les flots se gonflent et coulent en bondissant, l'âme du défunt passe à l'autre rive*". The first clause of this is not a translation of the Chinese, and Julien's failure to understand his author has spoiled this passage and his rendering of the story about Deva Pusa which follows.

Our pilgrim, in connection with his remarks about the popular belief in the spiritual virtues of the water of the Ganges, that is presumably at Gangādvāra, relates the following anecdote—

Deva Pusa of the *Chih shih tzu kuo* (or Sindhala country) profoundly versed in Buddhist lore and compassionate to the simple, had come hither to lead the people aright. At the time of his arrival the populace, male and female old and young, were assembled on the banks of the river and were *raising waves and fretting the current*. The Pusa solemnly setting an example bent his head down to check and turn the stream. As his mode of

¹ Mencius ch 7 P I

procedure was different from that of the rest, one of the Tirthikas said to him—Sir, why are you so strange? Deva answered—My parents and other relatives are in the Sindhala country, and as I fear they may be suffering from hunger and thirst, I hope this water will reach thus far, and save them. To this the Tirthikas replied—Sir, you are in error and your mistake comes from not having reflected—your home is far away with mountains and rivers intervening—to fret and agitate this water and by this means save those there from hunger, would be like going back in order to advance, an unheard of proceeding. Deva then replied that if sinners in the world beyond received benefits from this water, it could save his relatives notwithstanding the intervening mountains and rivers. His arguments convinced his hearers, who thereupon acknowledged their errors, renounced them and became Buddhists.

The *Chih shih tzu kuo* or Sindhala country of this passage has been taken to be Ceylon, the country generally so designated, but it may be here the name of a country in India. Yuan chuang, as will be seen hereafter, probably knew that Deva was a native of South-India and not of Ceylon.

According to the story here related, when Deva found the people on the river side splashing the water, he set himself to lead them to right views. He assumed a grave air and an earnest manner, and while the others were merely going through a religious rite, he seemed to be making a serious effort to force the river back. As he evidently desired, his strange manner attracted attention, and he was able to turn the Tirthikas' criticism against themselves. Here Juhen gives a rendering which seems to be against construction and context, and makes the story absurd. The Chinese for "giving an example" or "leading aright" here is *chi-yin* (引) which Juhen translates "voulut puiser de l'eau". But the phrase is of common occurrence and generally in the sense of "lead by example" or "set in the right course".

In this Srughna (or Srughin) country, we learn from the Life, the pilgrim enjoyed the society of a learned Doctor in Buddhism, by name Jayagupta. The pilgrim remained here one winter, and half of the spring following, and when

he had heard all the vibhashā of the Sautrantika School" he continued his journey.

With reference to Yuan-chuang's mention of the Buddha having preached at the capital of this country, it may be stated that the story of the Buddha visiting Srughna and there meeting the Brahmin named Indra, who was proud of his youth and beauty, is told in the Divyavadana and in the Sarvata Vinaya.¹

MO-TI-PU-LO (MATIPUR)

The pilgrim proceeds to narrate that crossing to the east bank of the river (that is the Ganges) he came to the *Mo ti pu lo* (Matipur) country. This was above 6000 *li* and its capital above 20 *li* in circuit. It yielded grain, fruits and flowers and it had a genial climate. The people were upright in their ways, they esteemed useful learning, were well versed in magical arts and were equally divided between Buddhism and other religions. The king, who was of the Śūdra stock (that is caste) did not believe in Buddhism and worshipped the Devas. There were above ten Buddhist monasteries with above 800 Brethren mostly adherents of the Sarvastivādin school of the Hinayana. There were also above fifty Deva Temples and the sectarians lived pell mell.

The *Mo-ti pu lo* or Matipur of this passage has been identified by Saint-Martin and Cunningham with Madawar or "Mandawar, a large town in western Rohilkhand, near Bijnor".² But in Cunningham's Map No X, to which he refers us, Madawar is to the south east of Srughna and to the south of Gangādvāra, whereas Matipur was to the east of Srughna and east of the "Source of the Ganges", if we are to regard that as the place at which the pilgrim halted before crossing the river. Then, as usual, the areas of the country and its capital do not agree with Cunningham's requirements.

Four or five *li* south from the capital, the pilgrim continues, was the small monastery in which the Śāstra master Gunaprabha composed above 100 treatises including the "*Pien ch'en-lun*".

¹ Divyay p. 74 Sar Vin Yao shih, cA. 9

² A. G. I. p. 318

(辯真論) or Truth expounding Treatise This Gunaprabha, Yuang chuang tells us from being a 'very clever boy had grown up to be a man of great intellectual abilities, and of wide and varied learning. He had at first been a student of the Mahāyāna system, but before he had thoroughly comprehended the abstruse mysteries of that system he was converted to the Hinayāna by the perusal of a Vaiṣṇava treatise. After this he composed several tens of treatises in refutation of the Mahāyāna principles, and in defence of the Hinayāna tenets. He was also the author of some scores (several tens and more) of secular books he set aside as wrong the standard treatises of his predecessors. But in his comprehensive study of the Buddhist canonical scriptures Gunaprabha had experienced difficulties on above ten points, and of these his prolonged application did not bring any solution. Now among his contemporaries was an arhat named Devasena who was in the habit of visiting the Tushita Paradise. This Devasena, by his supernatural powers on one occasion took Gunaprabha, at the request of the latter up to the Tushita Paradise to have an interview with Maitreya Bodhisattva and obtain from the Bodhisattva the solution of his spiritual difficulties. But when presented to Maitreya Gunaprabha was too proud and conceited to give the Bodhisattva his due reverence and accordingly Maitreya would not solve his difficulties. As Gunaprabha remained stubborn in his self conceit even after one or two unsuccessful visits and as he would not be guided by the counsels of Devasena the latter refused to take him any more into Maitreya's presence. Hereupon Gunaprabha in angry disgust went into solitude in a forest practised the "Penetration developing samadhi", but, not having put away pride, he was unable to attain arhatship.

- The Tushita Paradise, as is well known, is the Heaven in which the Bodhisattva Maitreya sojourns between his last incarnation on earth and his future advent as Buddha. The Śāstra master Gunaprabha in this passage considers himself, as a fully ordained Buddhist bhikṣu, to be superior to the Bodhisattva who was enjoying the pleasures of a prolonged residence in Paradise, and accordingly Gunaprabha persists in his refusal to show to Maitreya the reverence due to a great Bodhisattva, and consequently fails in his career.

The last clause in the above passage is given according to the correction of the Ming editors. This makes the

text to read *pu-tê chêng luo* (不得證果), that is, "he could not realize the fruit", viz-of arhatship. The old reading of some texts was *pu shih* (實) *chêng-luo*, meaning "he quickly realized the fruit". The D text has *pu chêng tao-luo*, which also means "he did not attain to arhatship", and this is doubtless the author's meaning

In a note to the name of Gunaprabha's treatise, the "Pien chên lun", mentioned in the above passage Julien restores the Sanskrit original as "Tattvavibhāṅga cāstra". This seems to show that he had forgotten the restoration of the name, given in translation and in Chinese transcription, which he had made in the *Life*. There he makes the name to be "Tattvasatya cāstra", and this restoration has been adopted by subsequent writers although it does not correspond to the translation of the name given by Yuan-chuang and the Chinese annotator. Now the characters which Julien makes to stand for *satya* are *san ti-sho* (三弟鐸) for *sandesa*, and the name of the treatise was evidently *Tattvasandesa* or "Exposition of Truth", Yuan-chuang's *Pien chên*, with the word for *sastra* (*lun*) added.¹ This treatise, which at one time had some fame, expounded the views of the Sarvāstivādin school, but it is unknown to the existing collections.

The Gunaprabha of Parvata here mentioned is not to be confounded with the great Vinaya master of the same name mentioned by Tāranātha.² Burnouf was of opinion that our Gunaprabha might be the Gunamatī, Master of Vasumitra, mentioned in the "Abhidharmakośa-vyākha", but there does not seem to be any ground for this unlikely supposition.³ In the 8th *chuan* of our treatise we find a Gunamatī disputing with a great master of the Sañkhya system.

Three or four li north from Gunaprabha's monastery, Yuan-chuang's narrative proceeds, was a monastery with above 200 Brethren all Hinayanists. It was in this monastery that the

¹ *Life Ch* 2 J I p 109

² *Tar S* 126 et al. *Wass Bud S* 84

³ *Bar Int* p 566 *Le Lotus de la bonne Loi* p 358

Sastra Mas'er Sanghabhadra ended his life. This Sanghabhadra it is added, was a native of Kashmir, and a profound scholar in the Vaibhasha sâstras of the Sarvastivadin school.

In this passage it is especially important to avoid Julien's rendering "[Le Traité] Vibhacha çastra" as the treatise of Sanghabhadra to be presently noticed does not deal with the special work called "Vibhāshā-lun".

Contemporary with Sanghabhadra Yuan-chuang continues was Vasubandhu Bodhisattva, devoted to mystic doctrine, and seeking to solve what was beyond language. This man in refutation of the Vibhāshā masters composed the "Abhidharma kosa sastra" ingenious in style and refined in principles. Sanghabhadra was moved by the treatise and devoted twelve years to its study then he composed a treatise which he called the "Kosa pao' or 'Bud hail', sastra. This work he entrusted to three or four of his cleverest disciples telling them to use his unrecognized learning, and this treatise, to bring down the old man Vasubandhu from the preeminence of fame which he had monopolized. At this time Vasubandhu, at the height of his fame was in Sākala the capital of Cheika, and thither Sanghabhadra and his chief disciples proceed with the view of meeting him. But Vasubandhu learning that Sanghabhadra was on the way to have a discussion with him hastily packed up and went off with his disciples. To these he excused his conduct by alleging his age and infirmities and he added that he wished to allure Sanghabhadra to Mid India where the Buddhist pundits would shew the character of his doctrines. Sanghabhadra arrived at the monastery at Matipur the day after Vasubandhu had left it, and here he sickened and died. On his deathbed he wrote a letter of regret and apology to Vasubandhu, and entrusted it, with his treatise, to one of his disciples. When the letter and book were delivered to Vasubandhu with Sanghabhadra's dying request, he was moved and read them through. He then told his disciples that Sanghabhadra's treatise though not perfect in doctrine was well written, that it would be an easy matter for him to refute it, but that out of regard for the dying request of the author, and as the work expounded the views of those whom he (Vasubandhu) followed he would leave the work as it was only giving it a new name. This name was "Shun chêng li lun", the Sastra which accords with orthodox principles (Nyāyānusara sâstra). The tope erected over Sanghabhadra's relics, in a mango grove to the north east of the monastery, was still in existence.

The above passage has been condensed from Yuan-chuang's text and the reader will observe that, according

to Yuan-chuang's information, Sanghabhadra was not, as Taranātha represents him, the master of Vasubandhu. He is rather the young Doctor in Philosophy who is presumptuous enough to take up arms against the great chief renowned far and wide as peerless in dialectics. There is nothing in the text to shew that he and Vasubandhu were personal acquaintances, or that they ever met. So also in the Life of Vasubandhu the two men are apparently unknown to each other, and never meet¹. Then as to the "Abhidharma-kośa-śāstra" it will be remembered that according to Yuan-chuang it was composed by Vasubandhu in Purushapur of Gandhara, and this does not agree with the account in the Life of Vasubandhu. Yuan-chuang also tells us, and the statement has been often repeated, that Vasubandhu composed this treatise in order to refute the Vaibhāṣikas. But, as has been stated already, this is not correct². The original verses were compiled by him as a Sarvāstivādin Vaibhāṣika, and the Commentary, still mainly Vaibhāṣika, gives a development to certain questions from the Sautrantika point of view.

As to the treatise which Sanghabhadra wrote to demolish the Abhidharma-kośa according to Yuan-chuang the original title is given in the text as *Kośa hail lun*. In the name "Abhidharma-kośa-śāstra" the word kośa is used in the sense of a *bud*, the verses being buds in which were folded the flowers of Buddhist metaphysics awaiting development. So the Kośa-pao-lun, or Bud-hail-treatise, is to be understood as the work which was to spoil all the hope and promise of the Kośa. Vasubandhu, Yuan-chuang tells us, changed the name to "Shun-chêng-li-lun" the "Śāstra which follows Right Principles", and the Life of Vasubandhu gives the title as "Sun shih-lun" or the "Śāstra which follows the True". These names are probably only different renderings of a name like Nyāyānusāra- or Anusāra-śāstra. But the story about the "Bud-hail" title must be

¹ Vasubandhu chuan (No. 1463)

² See ch. VI p.

discarded as the work itself shews that the author intended the title to be something like *Nyāyānusāra-sūtra*. Moreover in his subsequent treatise abridged from this he calls his large work "Shun-chêng-li-lun"¹ With the wicked title should go the statements about the author writing the book in a spirit of envious hostility against Vasubandhu. Nothing of this appears in the treatise, and on the contrary, as Vasubandhu stated, the work develops the views of Vasubandhu and those whom he followed. In its observations on the verses of the original treatise it sometimes uses the words of Vasubandhu's own commentary. The work condemns as heterodox certain opinions ascribed to the Sthaviras and the Sutra-lords (*Chung-chu*), but Vasubandhu is not mentioned by name. Tāranātha mentions a treatise called "*Abhidharmakośabhāṣyaṭīkā-tattva*" which he ascribes to Sthiramati. Another name for it is given as the "Thunder-bolt",² and it is perhaps not impossible that this may be the "Bud-hail" treatise ascribed by Yuan-chuang to Sanghabhadra.

The pilgrim's narrative proceeds to relate that beside the mango plantation which contained Sanghabhadra's tope was another tope erected over the remains of a Sastra Master named Vimala mitra. This man, who was a native of Kashmir and an adherent of the Sarvata school, having made a profound study of canonical and heterodox scriptures, had travelled in India to learn the mysteries of the Tripitaka. Having gained a name, and finished his studies he was returning to his home and had to pass Sanghabhadra's tope on the way. At this place he sighed over the premature death of that great Master under whom he had studied. He lamented also that Vasubandhu's teaching was still in vogue, and he expressed his determination to write a refutation of the Mahayana system, and to efface the name of Vasubandhu. But he in

¹ *Abhidharma tsang hsiên tsung lun* (No 1266). The word *tsang* in this title is evidently a translation of *kośa* and not of *pitaka*. In the name of the original treatise the word *lośa* has been explained as meaning not only *bud* but also *core*, *sheath*, *integument*, and other things. Sanghabhadra however, does not seem to have taken the word in the sense of *bud* either in the *Anusara sastra* or in this abstract.

² *Tar S 130* note, and *S 319* and note.

stantly became delirious five tongues emerged from his mouth and his life blood gushed forth. He had time to repent and to warn his disciples, but he died and went, according to an arhat to the Hell which knows no intermission. At the time of his death there was an earthquake and a cavity was formed in the ground at the spot where he died. His associates cremated the corpse collected the bones and erected a memorial (that is the tope) over them.

It is unusual for a tope to be erected in memory of a man reputed to have gone to Hell, and a Chinese annotator has suggested that *stupa* here is a mistake for *tī* (地) meaning "place". But the correction is not necessary, as the tope was erected by the personal friends of Vimala mitra, who did not think he had gone to Hell. As this man's dead body was cremated it seems strange that the arhat should have declared he had gone down into the Avichi Hell. It was evidently not the human being Vimala mitra who had so descended, but his *alter ego*, the embodied karma which had been formed and accumulated in successive births.

From the Life we learn that the pilgrim remained several months in this district studying Gunaprabha's *Pien-chen lun* or "Tattvasūndesa śāstra", already mentioned, and other Abhidharma commentaries. He also met here the Bhadanta *Mi to se na*, that is Mitasena (or Mitrasena) ninety years old who had been a disciple of Gunaprabha and was a profound scholar in Buddhist learning.

In the north west of Matipur Yuan chuang proceeds to relate on the east side of the Ganges was the city *Mo yū lo* (or Mayura) above twenty *li* in circuit. It had a large population and streams of clear water it produced bell metal (*t'u shih*) rock crystal and articles of jewelry. Near the city and close to the Ganges was a large Deva Temple of many miracles and in its inclosure was a tank the banks of which were faced with stone slabs the tank being fed by an artificial passage from the Ganges. This was called the Ganges Gate and it was a place for making religious merit and extinguishing guilt there were constantly many thousands of people from distant regions assembled here bathing. Pious kings erected Punyasalas in the district for the free distribution of dainty food and medical requisites to the kinless and friendless.

The "Ganges Gate" of this passage is said to be the Gan gādvara of Indian writers the modern Hardwar (or Hari dvar) the "Source of the Ganges" already mentioned As Yuan chuang apparently did not go to Mayura we should perhaps regard him as writing about Gangādvara only from information given to him by others Cunningham thinks that this Mayura 'must be the present ruined site of Mayapura at the head of the Ganges canal'¹ But *Mo yu lo* cannot be taken as a transcription of Mayapura, and this town was on the west side of the Ganges whereas *Mo yu lo* (Mayura) was on the east side of that river

Our pilgrim proceeds to relate that going north "from this above 300 li he came to the *Po lo hih mo-pu lo* country This was more than 4000 li in circuit with mountains on all sides its capital being above twenty li in circuit. It had a rich flourishing population and a fertile soil with regular crops it yielded bell metal (*tu shih*) and rock crystal the climate was coldish the people had rough ways they cared little for learning and pursued gain There were five Buddhist monasteries but there were very few Brethren there were above ten Deva Temples and the sectarians lived pell mell

The *Po lo-hih mo pu lo* of this passage has been restored by Julien who here transliterates *Po lo li mo*, as Brahma-pura and the restoration, said by Cunningham to be correct has been generally accepted Although *Po lo hih mo* is not the usual transcription for Brahma we may perhaps regard these sounds as standing here for this word Brahma-pura is the name of a city which is in the north east division of the *Bṛihat Samhita*² but in our author it is the name of a country Cunningham who treats the *north* of our text as a mistake for *north east*, finds the country in "the districts of Garhwal and Kumon"³ It is not very clear whether the pilgrim meant us to understand that he started on his journey to this country from Mayura, or from Matipura The Fang Chih took the former as the

¹ A. G. I. p. 351

² Ind. Ant. Vol. XXII p. 172

³ A. G. I. p. 353

starting-place, but it is perhaps better to regard Matipur as the "this" of the text from which the pilgrim goes north 300 *li*. This construction is in agreement with the *Life* which has no mention of Mayura.

To the north of this country (Brahmapura) and in the Great Snow Mountains, was the Suvarnagotra country. The superior gold which it produced gave the country its name. This was the 'Eastern Woman's Country' (that is of the Chinese) so called because it was ruled by a succession of women. The husband of the queen was king, but he did not administer the government. The men attended only to the suppression of revolts and the cultivation of the fields. This country reached on the east to Tu fan (Tibet) on the north to Khoten, and on the west to San p o ha (Malasa).

The Suvarnagotra country of this passage is perhaps the Suvarnabhū or Gold-region in the north east division of the Bṛihat-Saṃhitā, which Kern regards as "in all likelihood a mythical land" ¹. Our pilgrim was taught to identify this district with the "Eastern Woman's-Country" of his countrymen, which is undoubtedly a mythical region. Further the situation of the Eastern Woman's Country is far away from the region in which Yuan-chuang places his Suvarnagotra. This name is translated properly in a note to the text by "the Golds" that is, the Gold family, but the author evidently regarded the name as meaning "the land of gold".

KU-PI-SANG-NA (GOVISHANA)

From Matipur the pilgrim continued his journey, he goes on to state, travelling south east for above 400 *li* to the country of *Ku pi shuang* (or *sang*) *na*. This country was above 2000 *li* in circuit, and its capital, which was 14 or 15 *li* in circuit, was a natural stronghold. There was a flourishing population everywhere was a succession of blooming woods and tanks the climate and natural products were the same as those of Matipur. The people had honest sincere ways, they applied themselves to learning and were fond of religious merit most of them were non Buddhists, and sought the joys of this life. There

¹ Ind. Ant. Vol XXII p 190

were two Buddhist monasteries with above 100 Brethren all Hina yānist. Of Deva Temples there were above 80 and the sectarians lived pell mell. Close to the capital was an old monastery in which was an Asoka tope to mark the spot at which the Buddha preached for a month on religious essentials. Beside this were sites of the sitting places and exercise grounds of the Four Past Buddhas and two topes with hair and nail relics of the Julai.

For the *Ku pi sang na* of our pilgrim's text Julien suggests *Govisana* as a possible restoration, and Saint-Martin proposes *Govisana* but a word like *Govisanna* would be nearer the Chinese sounds. Cunningham thinks that the capital of this country was on the site of 'the old fort near the village of Ufañ which is just one mile to the east of the modern Kashipur'. The country he thinks, "must have corresponded very nearly to the modern districts of Kashipur, Rampur and Pilibhit". The Fang-chih here agrees with the Records but the I-fé does not mention the journey from Matipur to Govisana.

For the words "religious essentials" in the penultimate sentence of the above passage the original is *chu fa yao* (諸法要) which may also be translated "the essentials of things". These words are rendered by Julien— "les vérités les plus essentielles de la loi."

NGO HI CHI TA LO (AHICHA TRA?)

From Govisana our pilgrim proceeds to tell us he travelled south east above 400 *li* and came to the country which he calls *Ngo(or O) hi chi ta lo*. This country was above 3000 *li* in circuit its capital which was in a strong position was 17 or 18 *li* in circuit. The country yielded grain and had many woods and springs and a genial climate. The people were 'nurtured' in their ways they studied abstract truth (*tao* 道) and were diligent in learning with much ability and extensive knowledge. There were above ten Buddhist Monasteries and more than 1000 Brethren students of the Sammitiya School of the Hinayana. Deva Temples were nine in number and there were above 300 professed adherents of the other systems Paśupatas who worshipped Īvara (Siva). At the side of a Dragon Tank outside the capital was

an Asoka tope where the Ju lai preached to the Dragon for seven days. Beside it were four small topes at the sitting and exercise places of the Four Past Buddhas.

The first character for the name of the country here described is written 𑖀 in some texts and 𑖁 in others, and the sound of these characters is given as *Ngo* or *wo*, or *o* or *yo*. In the *Life* this syllable is omitted and the name is given as *Hī-ch'ī ta-lo*, apparently by mistake although it seems to be the reading of all the texts. The *Life* also makes the pilgrim go from *Brahmapura* south-east above 400 *li* to this country. Julien restores the name in our text as *Ahikshetra*, but the characters seem to require a word like *Ahichitra*. Cunningham adopts the account in the *Records* and writes the name *Ahichatra* which, he says, is still preserved although the place has been deserted for many centuries. The district of *Ahichatra*, he believes, occupied the eastern part of *Rohilkhand*.¹

PI-LO SHAN-NA.

From *Ahichitra* the pilgrim tells us, he went south (according to the other texts but according to D, east) about 260 *li* and crossing the Ganges went to the south (or according to the B text, south west) into the *Pi-lo shan-na* country. This was above 2000 *li* in circuit and its capital above ten *li* in circuit. It resembled *Ahichitra* in climate and products. The people were mainly non-Buddhists, a few reverencing Buddhism. There were two Buddhist Monasteries with 300 Brethren all *Mahāyāna* students. There were five *Deva* Temples and the sectarians lived pell-mell. In the capital was an old monastery within the inclosure of which stood an Asoka tope at the pilgrim's time in ruins. It was here that the Buddha delivered during seven days the sutra called *yun-chie ch'u ching* (運界處經). By its side were vestiges of the sitting and exercise places of the Four Past Buddhas.

The name of the country here described is restored by Julien tentatively as *Viraśāna*, but it may have been something like *Vilaśāna* or *Bhulasana*. *Pi-lo shan-na* (毗羅刪那) is the reading in the A, B, and C texts of the *Records*,

and in the Fang-chih but in the D text of the Records and in the Life the reading is *Pi-lo-na*(𑖓𑖦𑖫)-ra which may be for a word like Bhiladana.

Cunlancham identifies the capital of the *Pi-lo-shan* ra of our text with "the great mound of ruins called *Itanji-lī-ra* which is situated on the right or west bank of the *Kālī Nadi*, four miles to the south of *Karsai*, and eight miles to the north of *Eyta* on the Grand Trunk Road".

The name of the sutra which the pilgrim says the Buddha delivered at the capital of this country is given as *yur'-chie-chu-ching*. This means "the sutra of the place of the elements of the skandha", and it may represent a Sanskrit name like *Skandhadhātusthāna* sutra (B Nanjio suggests "Skandhadhātuupasthana sutra"), the "sutra of the basis of the elements of phenomena", that is, of the senses and their objects. No sutra with a name like this seems to be known to the collections of Buddhist scriptures, and the Fang chih merely states that the Buddha preached for seven days "the dharma of the elements of the skandha".

KAPITHA OR SĀNKAŚYA

From *Pi-lo-shan na*, the narrative proceeds, a journey of above 200 li south east brought the pilgrim to the *Kah pi ta* (Kapitha) country. This was more than 2000 li, and its capital above twenty li in circuit. The climate and products of the district were like those of *Pi-lo-shan na*. There were four Buddhist monasteries (that is perhaps, at the capital) and above 1000 Brethren all of the Sammatiya School. The Deva Temples were ten in number and the non-Buddhists who lived pell mell were Saivites.

Above twenty li east (according to the A, B, and C texts but in the D text west) from the capital was a large monastery of fine proportions and perfect workmanship. Its representations of Buddhist worthies were in the highest style of ornament. The monastery contained some hundreds of Brethren all of the Sammatiya School and beside it lived their lay dependents some myriads in number. Within the enclosing wall of the monastery were Triple stairs of precious substances in a row south to north, and sloping down to east, where the Jula descended from the

Tayastimsa Heaven. The Ju lai had ascended from Jetavana to Heaven and there lodged in the "Good Law Hall" where he had preached to his mother. at the end of three months he was about to descend. Then Indra by his divine power set up triple stairs of precious substances: the middle one of gold, the left one of crystal and the right one of silver. The Buddha descended on the middle stair. Brāhmā holding a white whisk came down with him on the right stair and Indra holding up a jeweled sunshade descended on the left stair while devas in the air scattered flowers and praised the Buddha. These stairs survived until some centuries before the pilgrims' time when they sank out of sight. then certain kings on the site of the original stairs set up the present ones of brick and stone adorned with precious substances and after the pattern of the original stairs. The present stairs were above 70 feet high with a Buddhist temple on the top in which was a stone image of the Buddha, and images of Brahma and Indra were at the top of the right and left stairs respectively and these images like the originals appeared to be descending.

By the side of these was an Asoka stone pillar of a lustrous violet colour and very hard with a crouching lion on the top facing the stairs. quaintly carved figures were on each side of the pillar and according to ones bad or good deserts figures appeared to him in the pillar. Not far from the Stairs was a tope where the Four Past Buddhas had sat and walked up and down. beside it was a tope where the Ju lai had taken a bath. beside this was a Buddhist temple where the Ju lai had gone into samadhi. Beside the temple was a large stone platform 50 paces long and seven feet high where the Ju lai had walked up and down all his footsteps having the tracery of a lotus flower and on both sides of it were small topes erected by Indra and Brahma. In front was the place where the bhikshuni Lotus flower colour (Uttpalavarni) wishing to be first to see the Buddha on his descent from Heaven transformed herself into a universal sovereign. At the same time Subhuti sitting meditating on the vanity of things beheld the spiritual body of Buddha. The Ju lai told Uttpalavarna that she had not been the first to see him for Subhuti contemplating the vanity of things had preceded her in seeing his spiritual body. The Buddha's exercise platform was enclosed by a wall and had a large tope to the south east of which was a tank the dragon of which protected the sacred traces from wanton injury.

The Lufe gives the direction in which the pilgrim travelled from *F'i-lo-shan na* to *Kah pi ta* as east instead of the south east of our text, but this may be a slip the dis-

tance between the places being the same in the two books.

Our pilgrim's *Kah-pi-t'a* has naturally been restored as *Kapitha*, and we may retain the restoration for the present, although the word seems to be otherwise unknown. The transcription may, however, be for *Kalpita*; a word which has, with other meanings, that of "set in order". It was perhaps this name which the translator of a *sūtra* had before him when he gave *An-hsiang-hui* (安詳會), "Orderly arranged Meeting" as the name of the place of the Buddha's descent.¹ A note to our text here tells us that the old name of *Kapitha* was *Seng-ka-she* (僧迦舍). This is a transcription of the name which is given as *Sankāśya* or *Sāṅkāśya* (in Pali, *Sankassa*). It is the *Sankasa* of some, the *Sakaspura* of Spence Hardy, and the modern *Sankisa*.² The name *Sankāśya* or a variety of it seems to have been generally employed by the Buddhist writers of India, and the translators into Chinese and Tibetan usually contented themselves with transcriptions of the original. Another name for the place of the Buddha's Descent is that used in the Itinerary of *Wu-k'ung*. There it is designated *Ni-fo-wū-to* (泥縛耆多), a puzzling word which the translators have taken to stand for the Sanskrit *Dēvāvatāra*.³ This is doubtless correct; and the district obtained the name *Devāvatāra* or *Devatāvataranam*, in Chinese *T'ien-hsia-ch'u* (天下處), "Place of Devas' Descent", because *Brahmā*, *Indra*, and hosts of inferior *devas* here appeared descending to earth with the Buddha. But as this name was not Buddhistic in appearance, the *Deva*

¹ *Fo-shuo-yi-tsu-ching*, ch. 2 (No. 674). But the *Kah-pi-t'a* of our text may be the *Kapisthala* of the *Brihat saṃhita* which the author of that work places in *Madhyadesa*—see *Ind. Ant.* Vol. XXII p. 180 and *Alberuni* I. p. 300.

² For *Sakaspura* and the Cingalese version of the visit to Heaven and descent therefrom see *M. B.* p. 308. For *Sankisa* see *A. G.* I. p. 368.

³ *Shih-li-ching*; *J. A. T.* VI. p. 358.

⁴ *Dīvyāṅ.* p. 150; *Tsa-a-han-ching*, ch. 19.

or Devatā was probably dropt in popular use, and the name Avataraṇam employed to denote the Buddha's Descent. Mr Rockhill's Tibetan text in his *Life of Buddha* relates that Buddha descended to "the foot of the Udumbara tree of the Avadjaravana (sic) of the town of Sankasya"¹. Here the Tibetan probably wrote Avajaravana by slip for Avataraṇa or Avataraṇam.

From a curious little sutra² we learn that there had once been at the place afterwards called Sankasya an old chaitya (or tope), built in honour of Kāśyapa Buddha by his father, and called *Seng la shuk* (Sankasya). Before the time of Gautama Buddha, however, this chaitya had sunk down until it was all underground. When the Buddha descended from Heaven at this place, he caused the Chaitya to emerge above ground as a memorial of his return to earth. Afterwards it was found that the chaitya as it stood interfered with the traffic of the city, and so the king ordered it to be demolished. But during the night the chaitya left its site to the north of the city, and passed over the city to a spot in a wood about twenty li south of it. The chaitya of this sutra is elsewhere a temple, and is described as the model for the one which five kings on Buddha's suggestion erected near its site³. This temple, called the Gods' or Kings' Temple, was erected as a memorial of the Buddha's Descent, and was probably the temple of our pilgrim's description. In the old sutra, it will be observed, the chaitya of Kāśyapa Buddha is called Sankasya, and this name is transferred to the city. As such the name is interpreted in another work as meaning *kuang-ming* (光明) or "brightness", "clearness",⁴ and this may indicate a reference to the legend of the chaitya of Kāśyapa Buddha.

The story of Gautama Buddha leaving Jetavana for the

¹ Rockhill *Life* p. 81

² *Fo shuo ku shu ching* (佛說枯樹經)

³ *Tseng yi a han ching* ch. 28

⁴ *A yu wang ching* ch. 3

Trayastrimśa Heaven, spending there the three months of Retreat expounding his religion to his mother and the devas, and of his glorious descent to earth again, is referred to in many Chinese Buddhist books, and with only few serious variations of detail. In some works the place of descent is near a sand, or a large tank, outside of Sankāśya city¹, and here the "tank" of the translation may represent *avatara* in the original, this word having also the meaning of *tank* or *pond*. In some treatises the scene of the Descent is at Kanyakubja, which is placed in the Sankāśya country by one authority, and in the Andhra country by another². The Tope of the Descent was the fifth of the Eight Great Topes connected with the Buddha's career, and it was at Kanyakubja. Wu-K'ung went to Devavatīra to see this tope, but neither Fa hsien³ nor our pilgrim makes any mention of a great tope in their descriptions of the sights of the place, although Yuan chuang, as we have seen, incidentally mentions a 'great tope' afterwards.

The legend of the bhikṣuṃ Utpalavarṇā making herself a magic Chakravartī, or Universal Sovereign, by which to be the first to greet Buddha on his descent, and her rebuke by the latter, who told her that Subhūti, seeing the spiritual body of Buddha, had been before her, is in several Buddhist works. But it is not in the account of the Descent given in the Tsa a-han chung, and in another treatise we have the bhikṣuṃ, but Subhūti is not mentioned by name. The words "transformed herself" in the statement that the nun "transformed herself into a Chakravartī" are for the terms *hua tso* (化作) and *hua wei* (化爲) of the text. But the former, which is apparently taken from the Fo kuo chi or some other work, means *create* or *produce the appearance of by magic*. Utpalavarṇa was an

¹ A yü wang chuan ch. 2, Tsêng yi a han chung, l. c.

² Ta shêng pên sheng hsin ti kuan chung, ch. 1 (No. 955). Fa ta ling ta ming hao chung (No. 898).

³ See Fo kuo chi ch. 17.

arhat, and so had supernormal powers. She thus according to various accounts, produced the appearance of a chakravartī with his seven treasures, 1000 sons, and fourfold army, and transferring himself into her own magic Chakravartī, obtained the foremost place in front of the actual kings and all the crowd assembled to welcome Buddha.¹ Subhuti at this time was sitting, according to Yuan chuang in a cave (that is, on the Gidhrakuta mountain near Rajagaha), but another version makes him to be in his own house. Knowing that the Buddha was coming down from Heaven he reflected on the vanity of phenomena, and realizing in himself the nature of phenomena, he beheld, by the vision of spiritual wisdom the spiritual body of Buddha that is the transcendental philosophy of Prajnaparamitā.

The Utpalavarnā (in Palī, Uppalavannā) of this passage was one of the greatest and most noted of the bhikshunis ordained by the Buddha. Her life as a laywoman had been extremely unhappy and, according to some legends, very immoral. She had two experiences which were especially distressing and produced on her a profound effect leading her, according to one account, to renounce the world. While living with her first husband she found him living in adultery with her mother, and her second husband brought home, as his concubine her daughter by her first husband. Each of these experiences pierced her with sharp agony, and she left her home for ever.² When she became converted, and was admitted into the Buddhist church as a bhikshuni, she devoted herself to religion with enthusiasm, and attained arhatship. But

¹ Ta chih tu lun ch 10, Ta sheng tsao hsiang kung tê ching ch 1 (No 288)

² Mi sa sai lu ch 4 (No 1122), Tib Tales p 206. A very different account of this lady's admission into his church by the Buddha is given in the Fa chu pi yu ching ch 1 (No 1353) where she is called simply *Lien hua* or *Uṭṭala*. For the previous existences of Uppalavannā see Dr Bode's "Woman Leaders of the Buddhist Reformation" in J R A S for 1893 p 532. For her misfortunes see also Therī Gāthā p 144 and p 198 (P T S)

even, as a nun she was put to shame and had trouble. And her death was sad, for she was brutally attacked by Devadatta and died from the injuries inflicted by him.¹ Her name "Blue lotus colour" may have been given to her, as some suppose, because she had eyes like the blue lotus, but it is also said to have been indicative of her great personal beauty, or of the sweet perfume which her body exhaled.

Subhuti is interpreted as meaning "Excellent Manifestation" which is Yuan chuang's translation, or "Excellent good auspices", and is rendered in several other ways. It was the name of the Disciple who is sometimes mentioned along with Mahakasyapa, Anuruddha and other great disciples of the Buddha.² But he is best known as the exponent and defender of the doctrines of Prajñāpāramitā. He was a son of a learned brahmin of Śrāvastī and was educated in the orthodox learning. Afterwards he became a hermit, and then was converted to Buddhism and ordained.³

¹ Sar Vin P o seng shih ch 10 (No 1123)

² Divyav p 361, Saddharmapundarika ch 1 and 4

³ Bud Lat. Nep 1 296, Chung lu yi hsing ch 13 (No 1473).

CHAPTER XI.

CHUAN V.

KANYĀKUBJA TO VIŚOKA.

From the neighbourhood of Sankāśya the pilgrim went north-west for nearly 200 *li* to the *Ka-no ku-she* (Kanyākubja) country. Thus he describes as being above 4000 *li* in circuit. The capital, which had the Ganges on its west side, was above twenty *li* in length by four or five *li* in breadth, it was very strongly defended and had lofty structures everywhere, there were beautiful gardens and tanks of clear water, and in it rarities from strange lands were collected. The inhabitants were well off and there were families with great wealth; fruit and flowers were abundant, and sowing and reaping had their seasons. The people had a refined appearance and dressed in glossy silk attire; they were given to learning and the arts, and were clear and suggestive in discourse; they were equally divided between orthodoxy and heterodoxy. There were above 100 Buddhist monasteries with more than 10,000 Brethren who were students of both the "Vehicles". There were more than 200 Deva-Temples and the non-Buddhists were several thousands in number.

The reading "north-west" at the beginning of this passage is that of the Common texts of the Records and Life; but the D text of the Records has "south-east". This agrees with Fa-hsien's narrative¹, confirms the correction proposed by Cunningham², and, as Kanauj is to the south-east of Sankassa, is evidently the proper reading. Moreover in the itinerary of the Sung pilgrim Kanyākubja is two stages (*ch'êng* 程) to the east of Sankāśya³. Fa-hsien

¹ Fo-huo-chi, ch. 18.

² Anc. Geog. Ind. p. 376.

³ Ma T. i. ch. 338.

makes the distance between these two places to be seven *yojanas* or above 40 miles and this agrees roughly with Yuan-chuang's 200 *li*

Yuan chuang here gives to the capital and extends also to the country the correct name *Ka no ku-she* (訶舍) that is, Kanyākubjā while Fa-hsien, like some other writers, gives the name which was probably in use among the natives, viz. *Ka-nao-yi* or Kanojī, that is, the modern Kanauj (or Kanoy). Another transcription of the classical name is *Kan na-lu-po she* (訶羅波舍) which is wrongly translated by *śih-ch'u* (尸出) or "Ear-emanation". In a note to our text the name is properly rendered by "Hunch-backed maidens", the translation which the pilgrim uses, and the story of the origin of the name is related by the pilgrim

According to this story long ages ago when Brahmādatta was king and men lived very many years the name of the city was Kusumapura (that is, Flower Palace or city). King Brahmādatta was a mighty sovereign and a great warrior, he had also the full number of 1000 sons wise and valorous and 100 fair and virtuous daughters. On the bank of the Ganges there lived at this time a rishi the years of whose life were to be counted by myriads, he was popularly called the "Great Tree Rishi", because he had a banyan tree growing from his shoulders, the seed of the tree had been dropt on him by a bird had taken root and grown to be a huge tree in which birds had been building their nests while the rishi remained unconscious in a trance of prolonged absorbed meditation (*samādhi*). When he had emerged from the trance and moved about he had glimpses of the king's daughters as they chased each other in the wood near the river. Then carnal affection laid hold on him and he demanded of the king one of his daughters in marriage. But all the princesses refused to wed "Great Tree Rishi", and the king was in great fear and distress. In this extremity, however, the youngest daughter made a sacrifice of herself by offering to marry the rishi in order to save her father and country from the effects of his displeasure. But when the circumstances were told to him the old rishi was very much enraged at the other princesses for not appreciating him properly and he cursed them with immediate crookedness. In consequence of this the ninety nine princesses all became bowed in body and the capital of the country was henceforth known as the city of the Hunch backed Maidens.

This is a very silly story which probably has a good moral. The brahmins, it will be remembered, have a similar story to account for the name of the city of Kanauj. They relate that Vayu, the Wind-god, also called a rishi became enamoured of the 100 daughters of Kusanabha, king of this country. The princesses refused to comply with the god's lustful desires, and he in his ire made them all back bowed, and from this circumstance the city got its name Kanyakubja¹. Another name for the district or country is *Mahodaya*, explained as meaning "the land of great prosperity". It is sometimes described as being in the Andhra country, as we have seen, and it is also said to be in the middle of India, in Madhyadeśa.

It will be seen that in the description which Yuan chuang gives of Kanyakubja in the above passage he represents the Ganges as being on its west side. Cunningham makes him place that river on the east side, but this is a mistake. Other old authorities place the Ganges on the east side of Kanauj, where it still is. The city is also described as being on the Kṛh nadī an affluent of the Ganges on its west side. Fa hsien merely describes the capital as reaching to the Ganges, but this evidently was not on the west side, as he tells of a tope on the north bank of the river about six li to the west of the capital.

Our pilgrim here gives the number of Buddhist establishments in and about the capital as 100. This number seems to point to a great increase of Buddhism in the district from the time of Fa hsien, as when that pilgrim visited the Kanauj country there were apparently only two Buddhist monasteries at the capital. The "non-Buddhists", or *yu-tao* (異道), of our pilgrim who meet us so often in the Records, were evidently the priests or other professed ministers of the various non-Buddhist systems of religion. These must have increased and Buddhists decreased at Kanyakubja after our pilgrim's time, as when the Sung

¹ Dowson's Cl. Dict. Ind. Myth. s. v. Vayu.

pilgrim visited the district he found topes and temples numerous but there were no monks or nuns

We have next an account of the sovereign ruling at Kanauj and his origin

This sovereign was of the Vaisya caste, his personal name was Harshavardhana and he was the younger son of the great king whose name was Prabhakaravardhana. When the latter died he was succeeded on the throne by his elder son named Raja (or Rāja) vardhana. The latter soon after his accession was treacherously murdered by Śaśaṅka the wicked king of Karnaśuvarna in East India a persecutor of Buddhism. Hereupon the statesmen of Kanauj on the advice of their leading man Bani (or Vani) invited Harshavardhana the younger brother of the murdered king to become their sovereign. The prince modestly made excuses and seemed unwilling to comply with their request.

When the ministers of state pressed Harshavardhana to succeed his brother and avenge his murder, the narrative goes on to relate the prince determined to take the advice of the Bodhisattva Avalokiteśvara (whose name is here given correctly in translation *Kuan tzu tsai* the "Beholding Lord"). An image of this Bodhisattva which had made many spiritual manifestations stood in a grove of this district near the Ganges. To this he repaired, and after due fasting and prayer, he stated his case to the Bodhisattva. An answer was graciously given which told the prince that it was his good karma to become king and that he should accordingly accept the offered sovereignty and then raise Buddhism from the ruin into which it had been brought by the king of Karnaśuvarna and afterwards make himself a great kingdom. The Bodhisattva promised him secret help, but warned him not to occupy the actual throne, and not to use the title *Maharaja*. Thereupon Harshavardhana became king of Kanauj with the title Rajaputra and the style Śiladitya.

Continuing his narrative the pilgrim goes on to state that as soon as Śiladitya became ruler he got together a great army and set out to avenge his brother's murder and to reduce the neighbouring countries to subjection. Proceeding eastwards he invaded the states which had refused allegiance and waged incessant warfare until in six years he had *fought* the Five Indias (reading *chi* 計). According to the other reading *chen* 臣, had brought the Five Indias under allegiance. Then having enlarged his territory he increased his army bringing the elephant corps up to 60 000 and the cavalry to 100 000 and reigned in peace for thirty years without raising a weapon. He was just in his administration and punctilious in the discharge of his

duties. He forgot sleep and food in his devotion to good works. He caused the use of animal food to cease throughout the Five Indias and he prohibited the taking of life under severe penalties. He erected thousands of topes on the banks of the Ganges, established Travellers Rests through all his dominions and erected Buddhist monasteries at sacred places of the Buddhists. He regularly held the Quinquennial Convocation and gave away in religious alms everything except the material of war. Once a year he summoned all the Buddhist monks together and for twenty one days supplied them with the regulation requisites. He furnished the chapels and liberally adorned the common halls of the monasteries. He brought the Brethren together for examination and discussion giving rewards and punishments according to merit and demerit. Those Brethren who kept the rules of their Order strictly and were thoroughly sound in theory and practice he advanced to the Lions Throne (that is promoted to the highest place) and from these he received religious instruction; those who though perfect in the observance of the ceremonial code were not learned in the past he merely honoured with formal reverence; those who neglected the ceremonial observances of the Order and whose immoral conduct was notorious were banished from his presence and from the country. The neighbouring princes and the statesmen who were zealous in good works and unwearied in the search for moral excellence he led to his own seat, and called "good friends" and he would not converse with those who were of a different character. The king also made visits of inspection throughout his dominion, not residing long at any place but having temporary buildings erected for his residence at each place of sojourn and he did not go abroad during the three months of the Rain season Retreat. At the royal lodges every day viands were provided for 1000 Buddhist monks and 500 Brahmins. The kings day was divided into three periods of which one was given up to affairs of government and two were devoted to religious works. He was indefatigable and the day was too short for him.

Before proceeding to the next part of our pilgrim's narrative we may add a few notes to his very interesting account of the great Harshavardhana. At the beginning of the above passage we are told that this king was of the *Fei she* (吠舍) or Vaisya caste (or stock). This statement Cunningham thinks is a mistake, the pilgrim confounding the Vaisya or Bais Ryputs with the Vaisya caste. Cunningham may be right. But we must remember that Yuan-

chuang had ample opportunities for learning the antecedents of the royal family, and he must have had some ground for his assertion. Harshavardhana's father, Prabhakaravardhana, a descendant of Puspabhuti king of Sthanesvara in Śrīkantha, "was famed far and wide under a second name Pratiprasila." To him were born two sons Rājyavardhana and Harshavardhana and a daughter Rājāsī, and he had also an adopted son Bhandi the son of his queen's brother.¹ The princess Rājāsī was evidently, as the "Harṣa carita" represents her, an intelligent, accomplished lady, and she was apparently interested in Buddhism. She was present as a listener seated behind Harshavardhana when the Chinese pilgrim gave the latter a lecture on Buddhism. It may be noted here also that the Fang chih represents Harshavardhana as 'administering the government in conjunction with his widowed sister', a statement which is not, I think either in the Life or the Records. Very soon after Rājyavardhana succeeded his father on the throne he had to go away to avenge the murder of his brother-in-law, and to rescue his sister imprisoned in Kanyakubja. He was successful in battle but he fell into a snare laid for him by the Gauda king, according to the "Harṣa carita", and was treacherously murdered. Hereupon Harshavardhana became king and at once proceeded to rescue his sister, take revenge, and make great conquests. This is the Śīladya of our pilgrim's narrative and of the Life, a very interesting and remarkable personage.

With Yuan chuang's story of Harshavardhana going to consult Avalokitesvara we may compare the statement in the 'Harṣa carita' that he "was embraced by the goddess of the Royal Prosperity, who took him in her arms and, seizing him by all the royal marks on all his limbs forced him, however reluctant, to mount the throne — and this though he had taken a vow of austerity and did not swerve from his vow, hard like grasping the edge of a

¹ Harṣa carita ch IV (Cowell and Thomas tr.)

sword"¹ It seems probable that Harshavardhana in the early part of his life had joined the Buddhist church² and perhaps taken the vows of a bhikshu, or at least of a lay member of the Communion His sister, we learn from the Life, had become an adherent of the Sammatīya school of Buddhism² Our pilgrim's sympathetic and generous praise of king Harshavardhana may be compared with the pompous, fulsome, and feigned panegyric of the king by Bana

In the above transcript from the Records the words rendered "reigned in peace for thirty years without raising a weapon" are in Julien's translation— "Au bout de trente ans, les armes se reposèrent" The text is *Ch'u san shih men ping ho pu-chi* (聖三十年兵戈不起) Here the word *ch'u* is employed as frequently, to denote "don the imperial robe" that is to reign gently and happily Thus the pilgrim tells us that there were thirty years of Śīladitya's reign in which there were peace and good government Our pilgrim has expressly stated that the king's conquests were completed within six years, and it is against text and context to make him represent the king as fighting continuously for thirty or thirty six years When his wars were over Śīladitya (the style of Harshavardhana as king) proceeded to put his army on a peace footing that is, to raise it to such a force that he could overawe any of the neighbouring states disposed to be contumacious We shall presently see how a word from him was enough for the king of one of those states Having thus made himself strong and powerful Śīladitya was able to live in peace, and devote himself to the duties and functions of a pious but magnificent sovereign He was now as fond of the solemn pomps and grand processions of religion as he had been of the marshalling of vast hosts the "magnificently stern array" of battle, and the glories of a great victory

We find two dates given for the death of king Śīladitya,

¹ *Harsha carita ch* IV (Cowell and Thomas tr) 1 57

² *Life ch* 5

Chinese history placing it in the year A D 648 and the Life in 655¹. Taking thirty six years as the duration of his reign we thus have 612 or 619 as the date of his accession. The latter date agrees with a Chinese statement that the troubles in India which led to Śīladitya's reign took place in the reign of Wang Kuo Tsu (A D 618 to 627). But the date 648 or rather 647, is perhaps the correct one. It must have been in 611 or 642² that in conversation with our pilgrim Śīladitya stated that he had then been sovereign for above thirty years. This also gives 612 for the year of his accession, and the addition of six years to the thirty gives 648 as the date of his death. But the Chinese envoy despatched in the early part of that year found on his arrival in the country, the king dead and a usurper on the throne. Moreover it was in 648 that Yün chüang submitted his Records to Li Tsung and Śīladitya must have been dead before this work was drawn up in its present form.

For the words rendered in the above passage by "advanced to the Lion's Throne" that is promoted to be chief bhikṣhu the Chinese is *tui sheng shi tzu chih tso* (推昇師子之座). This Juhen understood to mean 'caused them to go up on the throne'. The words might probably have this meaning in other places, but no good bhikṣhu would mount a rajā's throne, and it seems better to take *shu tzu chih tso* here in its Buddhist sense as the throne of the head of the Order. The term, we know, does mean a *king's throne* but Śīladitya did not use a throne, and the other use of the term seems to be here more correct and suitable. The Lion's Throne of the Buddhists was originally the seat reserved for the Buddha as leader of the congregation in the chapels and Halls of the Monasteries and afterwards it became the throne or seat of the chief bhikṣhu of a place. Promotion to the Lion's Throne was given locally by pious kings, and did not inter-

¹ See Ma T' i ch 338 Tung chien lang mu ch 40 (Tang Tai Tsung Chen kuan 22 j) Life ch 5

here with precedence among the Brethren. Here Śīladitya promotes the most deserving bhikṣus at his court, and makes them his private chaplains, personally receiving from them religious instruction¹.

By the term "good friend" *shan yu* (善友) which the pilgrim here tells us was applied by the king to devout princes and statesmen we are to understand the *lalyana mitra* of Buddhist use. This term means *good* or *auspicious friend*, and it is also employed in the sense of *spiritual adviser*, or *good counsellor in matters of religion*.

Returning again to our text we have now an episode which belongs to a date five or six years later than the visit of which the pilgrim is here telling. To be understood properly the narrative must be read in connection with the account of Kamarupa in *Chuan* 10 and with the story given in the corresponding passage of the *Life*.

The pilgrim we learn from these texts, was on his way back to China and had gone again to the great monastery of Nalanda in Magadha. Here he wished to remain for some time continuing his studies in Buddhist philosophy which had been begun there some years before. But Baśkaravarma styled Kumara, the king of Kamarupa (that is Assam) had heard of him and longed to see him. So he sent messengers to Nalanda to invite and urge the pilgrim to pay him a visit. Yuan chuang at first declined and pleaded his duty to China but his old Buddhist teacher Śīlabhadra convinced him that it was also his duty to go to Kamarupa on the invitation of its king who was not a Buddhist. The pilgrim at length yielded, travelled to that country and was received by the king with great honour. In the course of a conversation His Majesty said to Yuan chuang — "At present in various states of India a song has been heard for some time called the "Music of the conquests of Chin (Tsin) wang of Mahachina—this refers to Your Reverence's native country I presume. The pilgrim replied — "Yes this song praises my sovereign's excellences."

At this time king Śīladitya was in a district the name of which is transcribed in our Chinese texts in several ways. Juhen calls it "Kadjoughira" and Cunningham identifies it with the

¹ A special seat or pulpit called a "Lion's Throne" was sometimes given by a king to the Brother whom he chose to be Court preacher.

modern Kankjol) He had been on an expedition to a country called *Kung yu ta* and was on his way back to Kanaui to hold a great Buddhist assembly there Hearing of the arrival of the Chinese pilgrim at the court of king Kumara he sent a summons to the latter to repair to him with his foreign guest Kumara replied with a refusal saying that the king could have his head but not his guest "I trouble you for your head", came the prompt reply Thereupon Kumara became submissive, and proceeded with the pilgrim and a grand retinue to join Śīladitya

When this sovereign met Yuan chuang our text here relates having made a polite apology to the pilgrim (literally, having said— I have fatigued you) he made enquiry as to Yuan chuang's native land, and the object of his travelling Yuan chuang answered that he was a native of the great Tang country, and that he was travelling to learn Buddhism The king then asked about this great Tang country, in what direction it lay, and how far it was distant Yuan chuang replied that his country was the Mahachina of the Indians and that it was situated some *mirids* of 4 to the north east of India The king then relates how he had heard of the *Ch'in* (*Tsin-wang Tien tsü* (秦王天子) that is the Deva putra Prince Chin, of Mahachina, who had brought that country out of anarchy and ruin into order and prosperity and made it supreme over distant regions to which his good influences extended All his subjects the king continues having their moral and material wants cared for by this ruler, sing the "song of *Ch'in wang's* conquests", and this fine song has long been known here The king then asks the pilgrim whether this was all true and whether his Great Tang country was the country of the song

In reply the pilgrim states that *Ch'i na* (至那) that is Chin was the designation of a former dynasty in his native land and that Ta Tang denoted the present dynasty, that the sovereign then reigning Tai Tsung had been styled Chin wang before he came to the throne the title Emperor (*Tien tsü*) having been given to him on his accession He then adds a compendious description of Chin wang as Prince and Emperor

The musical composition about which our pilgrim here represents the two Indian rulers as enquiring was known in China as the *Ch'in-wang p'o-ch'ên-yao* (秦王破陣樂) or the "Music of Chin wang's victory" Its history is briefly as follows¹ In the year A D 619 T'ang Kao Tsu's

¹ See Tung chien kang mu, ch 39 (Tang Tai Tsung 1st y), Tang Shu ch 2 and 21, Ma T 1, ch 129

second son Ch'in-wang, or Prince of Chin, by name Shu-min succeeded in suppressing the serious rebellion of Liu wu chow (劉武周) who ultimately fell into the hands of the Turks and was killed by them. In commemoration of Chin wang's military achievements in suppressing this rebellion his soldiers got up a musical performance with song and dance. This musical composition was entitled "*Ch'in-wang-p'o ch'ên-yao*" and also "*Shên-kung* (神功) -*p'o ch'ên-yao*", but it came to be generally known by its short name "*P'o-ch'ên-yao*". The dancing or posture-making performance was called *Ch'i tê wu* (七德舞) or "Dance of the Seven Virtues", the name containing a classical allusion. The dancing was performed by a company of 128 men in silver hauberks and armed with spears. The emperor Kao Tsu ordered that the "*P'o ch'ên-yao*" should be given when a victorious general returning from a successful campaign entered the capital. At the banquet which Tai-Tsung, formerly Ch'in-wang, gave on his accession to the throne the dance and music were both performed. It is interesting to find that the fame of Tang Tai-Tsung's glory and achievements had reached the two Indian rulers if we can rely on our pilgrim's statements. It is also very remarkable that neither of Yuan-chuang's translators had read of Ch'in-wang, and it is pitiful to find Beal telling his readers that the Ch'in-wang of this passage is Ch'in Shu-Huang-ti of B. C. 221.

The Records and the Life next go on to relate how the kings Śīladitya and Kumāra, with their distinguished Chinese guest, proceeded by land and river in grand procession to the city of Kanyakubja where Śīladitya had convoked a great Buddhist assembly. From this city, when the functions were over, the kings, we learn from the Life, with their Chinese guest, and attended by magnificent retinues, went on to Prayaga for the great periodical distribution of religious gifts and alms which was to be made there by Śīladitya, and at that place our pilgrim bade his hosts farewell.

Before we take up again the thread of our pilgrim's

account of Kanyakubja we may add a few words about the great king who treated him with such marked distinction and kindness. This king Śīladitya or Śrī Harsha deva or Harsha "the Akbar of the 'Hindu period' of Indian history" was not only a great and successful warrior and wise and benevolent ruler he was also an intelligent devoted patron of religion and literature and he was apparently an author himself. His father had been a sun worshipper, but he himself, while retaining publicly the religion of his father, and tolerant and liberal to other sects was evidently strongly attached to Buddhism. As to his literary tastes we learn from Iching that the king once called for a collection of the best poems written of the compositions sent in to him 500 were found to be strings of jatakas (Jātakamālā). According to this author also Śīladitya put together the incidents of the Cloud riding (Jimuta vāhana) Bodhisattva giving himself up for a nigā, into a poem to be sung that is he composed the "Nigānanda". An accompaniment of instrumental music was added and the king had the whole performed in public and so it became popular. The king was also a great traveller, and a seeler after knowledge of various kinds. His information about the martial fame and exploits of the Chinese emperor Tai Tsung may have been acquired on one of his expeditions to distant provinces. In the year 641 he sent an envoy to the Chinese Court and apparently he sent another soon after. His title in the documents connected with the former embassy seems to have been "king of Magadha".

We return now to the pilgrim's description of Kanyakubja and an abridgment of his account of the Buddhist memorials of the neighbourhood is all that is given in these pages.

To the north west of the capital was an Asoka tope where the Buddha had preached excellent doctrines for seven days beside it was a tope where the Four Past Buddhas had sat and walked for exercise, and there was a small tope over hair and nail relics

of the Buddha. South of the Preaching Tope and close to the Ganges were three Buddhist monasteries enclosed by a common wall but each having its own gate. These viharas had beautiful images; the Brethren were grave and reverend, and there were thousands of lay Buddhists to serve them. The shrine or temple (*ching she*) of the three fold vihara had a casket containing a wonder working tooth of the Buddha an inch and a half long, which was exhibited to crowds of visitors for a charge of one gold coin each. There were other sacred Buddhist buildings near the city, and there were also splendid temples to the Sun god and to Mahesvara respectively.

From Kanyākubja the pilgrim tells us a journey of above 100 *li* south east brought him to the city *na fo ti po ku lo* (Navadevakula). This city which was on the east bank of the Ganges, was above twenty *li* in circuit, with flowery groves and clear ponds giving interchange of sunshine and shadow. To the north west of it and also on the east bank of the Ganges was a magnificent Deva Temple. Five *li* to the east of the city were three Buddhist monasteries enclosed within one wall but with separate gates; in these monasteries were above 500 Brethren all Sarvāstivādins. Near the monasteries were the remains of an Asoka tope where the Buddha had preached for seven days. Three or four *li* north of the monasteries was another Asoka tope. This marked the spot at which 500 hungry demons, having come to the Buddha and attained an understanding of his teaching, exchanged the demon state for that of devas.

The *Na-fo-ti po ku lo* of this passage, restored as Navadevakula, means "New Deva-Temple", and the site of the city so called is supposed to be represented by the present Nohbatgang¹. This city has also been identified with or declared to be near the village (in one text, but in the other texts, wood) of *A* (or *Ho*) *li* (𑖀𑖔 or 阿梨) which Fa-hsien places three yojanas south of Kanauj and on the other side of the Ganges. Our pilgrim's city may have been in the district of the wood (or village) but it cannot be identified with the latter. In the *Life* this city is not mentioned, and the Fang-chih calls it "Navadeva city". It is not unlikely that it was from the splendid Deva-temple which Yuan chuang here describes very briefly that the city obtained its name. This temple, which

¹ See Julien III. p. 350, A. G. I. p. 382

was, evidently of recent date, may have been devoted to the worship of Vishnu whose name Hari may be the word transcribed by Fa-hsien's 阿 (or Ho)-li

Instead of "500 Hungry (餓) Demons" in this passage, the reading of the D text and the Fang-chih, the common texts have "more than (多) 500 Demons". This latter is doubtless a copyist's error and the D reading is the correct one. From another source we learn that the Five Hundred Hungry Demons came to the Buddha and implored his pity: he thereupon requested Maudgalyayana to feed them. The Buddha had to enlarge their needle-throats to enable them to swallow the food: having eaten they burst, died, and went to Heaven. The Buddha explained that these creatures had once been so many lay Buddhists, and in that capacity had spoken rudely to bhikshus, calling them "Hungry Demons" when the bhikshus called on their morning rounds begging their daily food. The karma of this sin produced the rebirth of the upāsakas 500 times as Hungry Demons, and their faith in the Buddha, and prayer to him, obtained their release from misery and their birth in Heaven.¹

The pilgrim, as we learn from the Life, remained at Kanyākubja three months, being lodged in the Bhadriavihāra. Here he studied with the learned Buddhist monk *Pi-li-ye-se-na* (Vīryasena) the vibhāṣhā (or expository) treatise by *Fo-shih* (佛使), "Buddha's Servant" or Buddhādāsa, called the *Chou* (育)- or "Vaima-vibhāṣhā". Julien, who apparently had a different text here, represents the pilgrim as reading the vibhāṣhā of Buddhādāsa "et le mémoire du maître *chung-tcheou* (Aryavarma) sur le *Pi-po cha* (le vibhāṣhā)". A Buddhādāsa will be found mentioned in Yuan-chuang's account of "Hayamukha" as the author of a mahā-vibhāṣha-sāstra. As this work was a book of the Sarvastivādin school of the Hīnayāna its author cannot have been the Buddhādāsa who was a contemporary of Vasubandhu and a disciple of his brother Asanga.

¹ Sar Vin Yao shih, ch. 2

Very little seems to be known about any Sastira writer with the name Buddhadāsa, and there is no author with this name in the catalogues of Buddhist books as known in China and Japan

A YU T Ê (AYODHYA)

From the neighbourhood of Navaderakula city according to the Records the pilgrim continued his journey going south east and after travelling above 600 li and crossing the Ganges to the south he reached the *A y t ê* (Ayudha or Ayodhya) country

According to the account in the Life it was from Kanauj that Yuan-chuang went 600 li south east to Ayudha. The capital of this country which was about a mile to the south of the river, has been identified with the Ayodhya of other writers the old capital of Oudh. On account of difficulties of direction and distance Cunningham proposes a different site for Yuan chuangs Ayudha¹. But it seems to be better to adhere to Ayodhya and to regard Yuan chuangs *Ganges* here as a mistake for a large affluent of the great river. The city was on the south bank of the river, and about 120 miles east south east from Kanauj. Its name is found written in full *A yu t e ye* (阿喻呬也) Ayudhya (Ayodhya) and the city is said to have been the seat of government of a line of kings more or less mythical². We know also that to the Hindus Ayodhya was the old capital of Rāma and the Solar race. It is possible that an old or dialectic form of the name was Avuddha and the Chinese translation of the Sanskrit word which suits either form means *invincible* or *irresistible*. Moreover we find that Yuan chuang makes his Ayudha the temporary residence of Asanga and Vasubandhu and other authorities represent Ayodhya as a place of sojourn for these two illustrious brothers. Then the Ayudha of Yuan

¹ A. G. L. J. 380. As will be seen there are serious difficulties in the identification of Yuan chuangs Ayudha with the Sha-hi of Fa-hsien and with the Ayodhya of other writers.

² Chung hsu ching c/ I (No. 800).

churang is apparently the *Shak* or *Saket* that is *Ayodhya*, of *Ka hsiên*, this was ten *yojanas* south east from the *Ho li* village which was three *yojanas* south from *Kanauy* *Alberuni* makes *Ayodhya* to have been about 150 miles south-east from *Kanauy* being 25 *farsakhs* down the *Ganges* from *Bar* which was 20 *farsakhs* east from *Kanauy*¹ It is the *Siketa* or *Oudh* of the *Brihat sanhit* which merely places it in the "Middle country"² It may be mentioned in passing that there is no reference to *Ayudha* in the account of *King Śīladitya's* progress from *Kanauy* by land and river to *Prayaga*

The *Ayudha* country the *Records* proceeds to tell us was above 5000 *li* in circuit and the capital was above twenty *li* in circuit The country yielded good crops was luxuriant in fruit and flower and had a genial climate The people had agreeable ways were fond of good works and devoted to practical learning There were above 100 Buddhist monasteries and more than 3000 Brethren who were students of both "Vehicles" There were ten *Deva* Temples and the non Buddhists were few in number

Within the capital the author continues was the old monastery in which *Vasubandhu Pusa* in the course of some scores of years composed various *sastras* *Mahayanist* and *Hinayanist* Beside this monastery were the remains of the Hall in which *Vasubandhu* had expounded Buddhism to princes and illustrious monks and brahmins from other countries Four or five *li* north from the capital and close to the *Ganges* was a large Buddhist monastery with an *Asoka* *tope* to mark a place at which the Buddha had preached to *devas* and men for three months on the excellent doctrines of his religion Four or five *li* west from this monastery was a Buddha relic *tope* and to the north of the *tope* were the remains of an old monastery Here *Shih li lo to* (restored by *Julen* as *Śrīlabdha*) a *śastra* master of the *Sautrantika* School composed a *sautrantika vibhasha sastra*

In a mango plantation five or six *li* to the south west of the city was the old monastery in which *Asanga Pusa* had learned and taught By night the *Pusa* went up to the *Tushita* Heaven and there received from *Maitreya* the materials of three treatises which he taught by day to his disciples These treatises *Yuan chuang* tells us were the "*Yi ka shih ti lun* (瑜伽師地論)

¹ Alberuni Vol I p 200

² Ind Ant Vol XXII p 174 189

the "*Chuang yen ta sheng ching lun* (莊嚴大乘經論), and the "*Chung pien fen pie lun* (中邊分別論)

The large Buddhist Monastery and tope which in this passage are placed four or five to the north of the capital are described in the *Life* as being to the north west of the city, the distance being the same

Our pilgrim's Śrīlabdhī whose name is translated by Sheng shou (勝受) 'Received from the Victorious', may perhaps be Taranatha's "Sūtra śācharyā Bhadanta Śrīlabha" a Kāśhmīrian and the founder of a School¹

The three Buddhist treatises which Yuan chuang here states were communicated to Asanga by Maitreya require a short notice. The name *Yu la shih ti lun* most likely stands for 'Yogacharyā bhumī śāstra', as in Julien's translation, but it is possible that this was not the original name of the Sanskrit treatise. We have the work in Yuan chuang's translation made with the help of several Brethren, and with an interesting introduction by the pilgrim's friend, the distinguished scholar and official Hsü Ching tsung (許敬宗), whose name has a bad mark against it in history. The treatise which is a very long one, was uttered we are told, by Maitreya. It is a metaphysical religious work on the basis of Buddhism, but it is not a *yoga* treatise as the term *yoga* came to be understood, nor is the word *shih* to be taken here in its ordinary sense of 'master'. The *yoga shih* is merely a disciple who devotes himself to profound continued meditation in the seventeen *ti* (bhumī) or provinces of faith and knowledge. It is not unlikely that the name which Mr. Bunyiu Nanjo gives as the second name of this treatise, viz. "Saptadasa-bhumī (or bhumika) śāstra yogacharyābhumī", is the correct or original title²

The "*Chuang yen ta sheng ching lun*" is evidently, as Julien restores the name, the 'Sūtralankāra tika', the word *Mahayana*, which is required by the Chinese trans-

¹ Tar S 4 67

² Bun No 1170

lation, being omitted from the title. We find the name also given as "Ta-sheng chuang yen chung lun", and a treatise so designated composed by Asaṅga was translated by Prabhūmītra, a kṣatriya of Magadha and a contemporary of our pilgrim. This translation is evidently a work of great merit and the treatise is interesting as giving Asaṅga's exposition and defence of Mahāyānism. It is a work in verse with a prose commentary throughout, but there is no reference to Maitreya as author or inspirer either of verses or commentary.¹

The third treatise here said to have been communicated by Maitreya to Asaṅga is called by our pilgrim "Chung pien fen pie lun", the Sanskrit original name being 'Madhyānta-vibhaga śāstra'. But this treatise, of which there are two Chinese translations, is represented as the work of Vasubandhu. The Chinese name which Yuan chuang here uses for it is that given to Paramārtha's translation his own translation having a name slightly different. The treatise in both translations gives the "Pien chung pien lun sung" by Maitreya, with a running commentary on it by Vasubandhu. Maitreya's work is a very short one in seven poems on seven subjects, and it was this work apparently which Maitreya according to Yuan chuang in this passage communicated to Asaṅga. The term Madhyānta vibhaga seems to mean, as translated into Chinese, "distinguishing between the mean and the extremes", that is, holding the mean between the negation and the assertion of existence.²

Above 100 paces to the north west of the Mango Grove was a Buddha relic tope and beside it were old foundations at the place where Vasubandhu Puṣa descended from Tushita Paradise to have an interview with his elder brother Asaṅga Puṣa. Our pilgrim here represents these two brothers as natives of Gandhara and as having lived in the millennium succeeding the Buddha's decease (that is according to the Chinese reckoning, before the third century of our era). Asaṅga he tells us began his Buddhist religious career as a Mahāśāśika and afterwards became a Mahāyānist and Vasubandhu began his religious career in

¹ No 1190

² Nos 1214 1245 and 1248

the school of the Sarvastivādins Yuan chuang here tells a curious story about the two brothers and a great scholar who was a friend and disciple of Asanga by name *Fō t'c sêng ha* translated by *Shih tzu chiao* or 'Laon intelligence', the Sanskrit original being *Buddha simha*. These three Brethren made an agreement that when one of them died and went to Heaven he should come back to earth at the first opportunity to enlighten the survivors as to his circumstances. The first to die was the disciple *Buddhasimha* but in Heaven he forgot his promise. Then three years afterwards *Vasubandhu* died and went to *Tushita* Heaven. He had been dead six months and no message had come from him so the heretics declared that he and *Buddhasimha* had gone to a bad place. But at length *Vasubandhu* remembering his agreement found it in his power to keep it. So in the form of a *Deva rishi* he descended to earth and visited his brother telling him how he and *Buddhasimha* had fared in *Maitreya's Paradise*.

The story here given about the death of *Vasubandhu* is at variance with the accounts of the brothers given in the *Life of Vasubandhu*, and other works, according to which the elder brother dies first, leaving the younger brother still living and writing.

The pilgrim next tells of an old monastery 40 *li* north west from *Asanga's* chapel, and having its north side close to the *Ganges*. Within this a brick *tope* marked the place at which the conversion of *Vasubandhu* to Mahayanism began. According to the version of the story here given *Vasubandhu* having come from North India to *Ayudhya*, heard a portion of the Mahayana treatise *Shih ti chung* (十地論) recited by a disciple of *Asanga* and was thereby led to reflect. He became convinced that he had been wrong as a Hinayanist opponent of Mahayanism and was ready to cut out his tongue as the offending member which had reviled the 'Great Vehicle'. But his elder brother who had wished to bring about *Vasubandhu's* conversion, interfered and taught him to use his tongue in the praise and preaching of his new creed.

In other works *Asanga* uses the pretext of fatal sickness to bring his brother from *Ayodhya* to visit him at *Purushapura*, and there reasons with him and converts him to Mahayanism. After the death of *Asanga*, his brother composed several treatises all expounding and defending Maha-

yānism, and he died in Ayodhya at the age of eighty years.¹ The *Shih-ti-ching* or "Sutra of the Ten Lands" of this passage is doubtless the work called *Shih-chu-ching* (No 105), the *Daśabhumika-sutra*. One of Vasubandhu's numerous treatises is a commentary on this sutra entitled *Shih-ti-ching-lun* (No 1194).

A-YE-MU-K'A.

From Ayudha the pilgrim travelled east, he writes, above 300 *li* and crossing the Ganges to the north, arrived in the *A-ye mu k'a* country. This country he describes as being 2400 or 2500 *li* in circuit with its capital, situated on the Ganges, above 20 *li* in circuit. In climate and natural products the country resembled Ayudha. the character of the people was good, they were studious and given to good works. There were five Buddhist monasteries with above 1000 Brethren who were adherents of the Sammatīya School, and there were more than ten Deva-Temples. Not far from the capital on the south east side, and close to the Ganges, were an Asoka tope at a place where the Buddha had preached for three months traces of a sitting and walking place of the Four Past Buddhas, and a dark-blue stone tope with Buddha relics. Beside this last was a monastery with above 200 Brethren, and in it was a beautiful life like image of the Buddha its halls and chambers rose high, and were of exquisite workmanship. It was in this monastery that the Sastra Master Buddhadasa composed his great vibhasha treatise of the Sarvastivādin School.

The name of the country here transcribed *A-ye-mu k'a* was restored by Julien in his translation of the Life as *Ayamukha*, but in the present passage he makes these syllables stand for Hayamukha. This latter restoration seems to be inadmissible, and as *A-* is the first syllable of the name in all the texts of the Life and Records, and in the Fang-chih, we must regard *Ayamukha* as the name which the pilgrim transcribed. It is not impossible that the correct form may have been Hayamukha or Āyamukha, the former word meaning "Horse face" and the latter meaning a *creek* or *channel*. Cunningham, who finds Yuan-

¹ Vasubandhu chuan (No 1463)

chuang's Ayudha in the present Kākāpurī, thinks that Ayamukha may be represented by "Daundī khera on the northern bank of the Ganges". But these identifications are mere conjectures and are of little use.¹

In the corresponding passage of the Life we are informed that the pilgrim left Ayudha in a boat along with a party and proceeded east down the Ganges towards Ayamukha. When about 100 *li* on the way, in a wood of asoka trees the boat was attacked by Thugs who robbed the party. When these Thugs saw that the Chinese pilgrim was an uncommonly fine looking man they decided to sacrifice him to their cruel deity Durga. From this terrible fate the pilgrim was preserved by a providential hurricane which put the wicked Thugs in fear, and made them release their doomed victim, treat him with awe and reverence, and under his teaching give up their wicked profession, and take the vows of lay-Buddhists. After recording this episode the Life goes on to state that the pilgrim "from this" went above 300 *li* east and crossed to the north of the Ganges into the Ayamukha country". The "this" here may be taken to mean the place of the encounter with the Thugs, and the distance from Ayudha to Ayamukha would then be 400 *li*. But the words "from this" in the above extract from the Life should perhaps be treated, in accordance with the text of the Records, as indicating Ayudha city as the point of departure. The pilgrim apparently travelled by land eastwards from the place where the boat was seized by the Thugs, and he crossed to the north side of the river near Ayamukha city. This river cannot have been the Ganges and it may have been the Sai. We may even doubt whether the river in the Asoka wood on which the Thugs had their piratical boats was the Ganges proper.

The great vibhāṣhī treatise, which Yuan-chuang here tells us was composed by Buddhadaśa in a monastery of this country, is probably the "Varma-vibhāṣhā" already

mentioned, above p 353, in connection with the pilgrim's account of Kanauj

PRAYAGA.

From Ayamukha the pilgrim went south east, he tells us, and after a journey of more than 700 *li*, crossing to the south of the Ganges and the north of the Jumna he came to the *Po lo ya la* (Prayaga) country

There is evidently something wrong in the accounts which our pilgrim has given of his journeys in these districts. He applies the name "Ganges", apparently to more than one river, and it seems probable that his Ayudha and Ayamukha were on an affluent or affluents of the Ganges proper. From Kanauj he may have made an excursion to these two cities. From Ayamukha he apparently returned to the Ganges somewhere near Navadevakula, which was 20 miles to the south east of Kanauj. From the neighbourhood of this place to Prayaga, going south-east, is about 140 miles or 700 *li*. Cunningham seems to take no notice of the statements in the Records and Life that Ayamukha was to the east of Ayudha. Moreover he wrongly represents Yuen chuang as going by boat all the way down the Ganges south-east from the latter city to Ayamukha. So we cannot wonder that he finds it impossible to make distances agree.¹

The pilgrim goes on to state that the Prayaga country was above 5000 *li* in circuit, and the capital above 20 *li* in circuit. This city, which apparently had the same name, he places at the junction of two rivers (viz the Ganges and the Jumna). He praises the country, the climate and the people. He tells us there were only two Buddhist establishments and very few Brethren, all Hinayānists. There were some hundreds of Deva Temples and the majority of the inhabitants were non Buddhists.

In a champaka grove to the south west of the capital was an old Asoka tope to mark the spot at which the Buddha once overcame his religious opponents (that is, in controversy). Beside it were a Buddha hair and nail relic tope and an Exercise ground. Near the relic tope was an old monastery in which Deva Pusa

composed the "Kuang pai lun" for the refutation of the Hina yauists and the conquest of the Tirthikas •

Prayaga the capital of this country, corresponds, as has been shown by others to the modern Allahabad The word *Prayaga* means *sacrifice* or *a holy ground set apart for sacrifices*

The Deva Pusa of this passage has been already met with at the Sources of the Ganges His treatise here mentioned, the "Kuang pu lun", which we have in Yuan chuang's translation is a very short one in verse arranged under eight headings It denounces the belief in individual permanence and argues against brahmins and others ¹

In the capital the pilgrim goes on to relate was a celebrated Deva Temple in front of which was a great wide spreading um brageous tree In this tree once lodged a cannibal demon hence the presence of numerous bones near the tree Visitors to the temple under the influence of bad teaching and supernatural beings had continuously from old times all lightly committed suicide here Lately however a very wise and learned brahmin of good family had tried to convert the people from their evil belief and stop the practice of suicide He accordingly went up to the temple and in the presence of friends proceeded to kill himself in the usual way by mounting the tree to throw himself down from it When up the tree addressing the spectators he said — "I am dying (lit have death) formerly I spoke of the matter as an illusion now I have proof that it is real, the devas with their aerial music are coming to meet me and I am about to give up my vile body from this meritorious spot. As the Brahmin was about to throw himself down from the tree to be killed his friends tried to dissuade him from the act, but their counsels were in vain They then spread their garments below the tree, and when the Brahmin fell he was unhurt but was in a swoon When he recovered he said to the by standers—"What is seen as the devas in the air summoning one is the leading of evil spirits not the acquisition of heavenly joy

The story here told leaves somewhat to be supplied in order to make it as intelligible to us as it was to Yuan chuang's Chinese readers For some reason not explained in the story it had long been an article of popular belief

that suicide at this Deva-Temple led to birth in Heaven. Then those who "threw away their lives" here were evidently left unburied and were supposed to be devoured by the man-eating demon who lived in the great tree. This tree was undoubtedly a banyan, and Cunningham thinks that "there can be little doubt that the famous tree here described by the pilgrim is the well known *Akshay Bat*, or "undecaying Banyan tree", which is still an object of worship at Allahabad."

Not long before the time of Yuan chuang's visit, he tells us, a brahmin "of good family" had tried to convert the people from their folly in committing suicide here. The Chinese rendered by "of good family" is *tsu hsing tzü* (族姓子) lit "Son of a clan." This expression is one of very common use in Buddhist books and means simply "a gentleman." Yet Julien here translates it by "don't le nom de famille était *Fils* (Poutti)"¹

This brahmin gentleman, when up in the banyan tree, hears music and sees beings, and he thinks (or pretends to think) that these are the harbingers of a happy death giving an entrance into Heaven. But when he recovers from his swoon he recognizes, and declares, that he only saw in the air devas summoning him, that these were evil deities coming to meet him and that there was no heavenly joy. The language here used belongs partly to a popular Chinese belief or fancy. The Chinese generally believe that dying persons often receive intimation or indication of what is to be their lot after they depart this life, and the information is supposed to be often conveyed by the appearance of a certain kind of emissary from the other world. These messengers from the world beyond are said to *chue yin* (接引) or to *yin* the dying individual, that is to welcome or introduce him. It is these terms which are

¹ The phrase *tsu hsing tzü* is the equivalent of the Indian term *kulaputra* "son of a family", that is, clansman and the clansmen were regarded as well born. In the Buddhist books *tsu hsing tzü* is applied to eminent laymen, and also to bhikshus, who moreover use it in speaking of themselves.

here translated by "coming to meet" and "leading" .The Brahmin mistook the character of the *welcome* to be given .We are probably to understand that he taught his friends, and the people generally, that the music and angels of the suicides were in all cases harbingers of posthumous misery, not of bliss in Heaven

On the east side of the capital and at the confluence of the rivers the pilgrim proceeds, was a sunny down about ten li wide covered with a white sand .This down was called in the popular language "The Grand Arena of Largesse" .It was the place to which from ancient times princes, and other liberal benefactors, had come to make their offerings and gifts .Yuan chuang then proceeds to describe how king Śīladitya acted on the occasion to which reference has already been made .The king, as we have seen, went in state from Kanauj to this place for his customary quinquennial great distribution of gifts, and alms and offerings .He had come prepared, and he gave away all the public money, and all his own valuables .Beginning with offerings to the Buddhist images on the first day, Yuan chuang here tells us the king went on to bestow gifts on the resident Buddhist Brethren, next on the assembled congregation, next on those who were conspicuous for great abilities and extensive learning, next on retired scholars and recluses of other religions, and lastly on the kinless poor .This lavish distribution in a few (according to the Life in 75) days exhausted all the public and private wealth of the country, but in ten days after the Treasury was emptied it was again filled

At the junction of the rivers and to the east of the Arena of Largesse, Yuan chuang continues every day numbers of people arrived to die in the sacred water, hoping to be thereby reborn in Heaven .Even the monkeys and other wild creatures came to this place, some bathed and then went back, others fasted here until they died .In connection with this statement Yuan chuang tells a story of a monkey which lived under a tree close to the river, and starved himself to death at the time of Śīladitya's visit .He adds that this occurrence led to the following curious and trying austerity performance on the part of the local devotees given to austerities .High poles were erected in the Ganges at this place, each with a projecting peg near the top, at sunrise a devotee mounted a pole, holding on to the top with one hand and one foot, and supported by the peg, he stretched out his other arm and leg at full length .In this posture he followed keenly with his eyes the sun's progress to the right, when the sun set the devotee came down from his perch to

resume it next morning. This painful austerity was practised with the view of obtaining release from mortal life, and it was carried on for several tens of years without relaxation.

This story of our pilgrim seems to be rather silly and not very intelligible. One cannot see the connection between the monkey's suicide and the devotees' practice on the poles. But if we regard the date given for the monkey's death, viz the time of Śīladitya's visit, as an accidental mistake (which the context seems to show it must be) then we probably have here a fragment of some old story told to account for absurd austerities still practised at the time of Yüan-chuang's visit. According to the Fang-chih the monkey of the pilgrim's story was a husband, and his wife was attacked and killed by a dog. The husband found the dead body of his wife, and with pious care carried it to the Ganges, and consigned it to that sacred river, then he gave himself up to grief, would not take any food, and after a few days died. It is probable that the original story also told how the bereaved monkey every morning went to the top of one of the poles at the bank of the river, and sat there gazing intently at the sky, that he came down at evening, and spent the night in his lonely home, and that when he died he rejoined his wife in Heaven. When the history of this pious uxorious monkey became generally known, seekers after Heaven were moved to adopt the means which they had seen the monkey use. So they set up poles in the river, and sat perched on these after the manner of monkeys, as the pilgrim describes, craning their necks to watch the sun through all his course from east to west. This is what they thought the pious intelligent monkey had been doing.

KOŚAMBI.

From Prayaga the pilgrim went, he tells us, south west through a forest infested by wild elephants and other fierce animals, and after a journey of above 500 *li* (about 100 miles) he reached the *Kiao shang mi* (that is Kausambi or Kosambi) country. This is described by the pilgrim as being above 6000 *li* in circuit, as

its capital (evidently named Kosambi) as being above 30 *li* in circuit. It was a fertile country with a hot climate it yielded much upland rice and sugar cane, its people were enterprising fond of the arts and cultivators of religious merit. There were more than ten Buddhist monasteries but all in utter ruin and the Brethren, who were above 300 in number were adherents of the Hinayana system. There were more than fifty Deva Temples and the non Buddhists were very numerous.

In the corresponding part of the Life distance and direction of Kosambi from Prayaga are also given as above 500 *li* to the south west. This agrees with the statement in a subsequent part of the Life that the pilgrim on leaving Prayaga journeyed south west through a jungle for seven days to Kosambi. Cunningham, (who was misled by Juhen's slip in writing 50 *li* instead of 500, in his translation of the Life) identifies the city of Kosambi here described with the modern Kosam which is only 38 miles by road south west from Allahabad.² M. Saint Martin could not offer any identification for our pilgrim's Kosambi and seems to think that it lay to the north west not south west of Prayaga.³ Cunningham's identification has been conclusively shown to be untenable by Mr Vincent A Smith, whose studies on the subject have led him to the conclusion that "the Kausambi twice visited by Hsuen Tsiang is to be looked for, and, when looked for will be found, in one of the Native States of the Baghelkhand Agency, in the valley of the Tons River, and not very far from the East Indian Railway, which connects Allahabad with Jabalpur. In short, the Satna (Sutna) railway station marks the approximate position of Kausambi."⁴ But this identifica-

¹ There is reason for suspecting the genuineness of the passage in the 5th *chuan* of the Life which seems to be a remembrance of the passage in the 3rd *chuan*. In transcribing the name Ghoshila the author uses characters different from those in the 3rd *chuan* and from those in the Records. This passage also makes the pilgrim go back from Prayaga to Kosambi south west and continue his journey from the latter going north west.

² A. G. I. p. 391.

³ J. III. p. 302 and see Map in J. II.

⁴ J. R. A. S. for 1898. [See now Dr Yost's article *ibid* 1904.]

tion also is beset with difficulties which seem to me insurmountable. For the pilgrim to go south-west from Prayaga was to go out of his line of travel, and although this detour might be necessary for one visit it would be unnecessary on the return journey. Mr Smith has noticed the discrepancy between Yuan chuang's location of Kosambi and that given by Fa hsien, and he thinks the latter's *north west* is a clerical mistake for *south west*, but, on the other hand, Yuan chuang's *south west* may be an error for *north east*. Mr Smith, moreover, has not noticed the important difference between the Life and the Records as to the distance and direction of Visakha from Kosambi, and this difference increases the difficulty of identification.

Now our pilgrim's statements here, as to the bearing and distance of Kosambi from Prayaga and other places, are not in agreement with other accounts of the situation and bearings of Kosambi. Thus the Life, which in one place reproduces the words of the Records, in another passage makes *Pi so la* (Visoka), on the way to Śravastī, to be 500 *li* east of Kosambi, while the Records, as we shall see presently, puts it about 880 *li* to the north north east of the city. Again, Fa hsien places the Kosambi country thirteen *yojanas* (about 90 miles) to the north west of the Deer Park to the north of Benares.¹ This would make the city of Kosambi lie to the north of Prayaga. Then in the Vinaya we find that in going from Rājagṛha to Kosambi one went by boat up the river, that is, the Ganges.² Further we read of the Buddha on his way from Śravastī to Kosambi passing through the town of Bhaddavatika, and this was the name of the swift elephant of the king of Kosambi.³ In some books the Kosambi and Kosala countries are adjacent, and the bhikkhus of Śravastī and Kosambi keep Retreat at the same town in

¹ Fo kuo chi ch 34

² Vin Chul XI 1

³ Jataka Vol I p 206 (Chalmers tr)

the Kosambi country.¹ So also when a hermit's life is threatened by the king of Kosambi in the Udayana Park the hermit flies to Śrāvastī.² Further in the Sutta Nipāta the deputation from the Brahmin Bavari going to visit the Buddha at Śrāvastī proceed to "Kosambi and Saketa and Śrāvastī".³ From all these it would seem that Kosambi, instead of being 500 *li* to the south-west of Prayāga, was rather to the north of that place, and it evidently was not very far from Śrāvastī. It was the capital of the Vatsa (in Chinese *Tu-tzü* 犢子 "Calf") country, and the land of the Vatsas was in the Middle Region of the Brihat Samhita.⁴

Within the old royal inclosure (*kung*) of the capital, the pilgrim relates, was a large Buddhist temple (*ching-shê*) over sixty feet high in which was a carved sandal-wood image of the Buddha with a stone canopy suspended over it. This image made miraculous manifestations, and no power could move it from its place so paintings made of it were worshipped, and all true likenesses of the Buddha have been taken from this image. It was the one made for king Udayana by the artist conveyed to the Trayastimsa Heaven by Mudgalaputra at the king's request. When the Buddha descended to earth near Sankāsya the image went out to meet him and the Buddha put it at ease saying—"What I want of you is that you convert those distressed by error and and that you teach posterity".

The Udayana of this passage was the prince born to the king of Kosambi on the day on which the Buddha was born. His name (in Pali books Udena) is translated into Chinese in a note here by *ch'u-ai* (出愛), "yielding affection"; but it is also rendered by *ch'u luang* (出光), "yielding brightness", by *jih-tzü* (日子) "the Sun", by *jih-chu* (日出) or *jih-ch'u* both meaning "Sunrise". He is represented as originally a cruel wicked king with a very bad temper, and as an enemy to the Buddhists. But he took

¹ Sing-ki-lü, ch. 28

² Sar. Vin. Tsa-shih, ch. 3

³ Sutta Nipāta p. 163 (P. T. S.)

⁴ Divyāvr. p. 528 Yin-kuo ching, ch 1 (No 666), Ind Ant. Vol XXII pp 170 181.

After mentioning certain memorials of the Four Past Buddhas and of the Buddha at this part of the capital the pilgrim proceeds— In the south-east corner of the city are the ruins of the house of the Elder Ku 𑖀𑖄𑖄𑖄 (𑖀𑖄 𑖀𑖄 𑖀𑖄) or Ghoshila. Here also were a Buddhist Temple, a Hair and Nail relic tope, and the remains of the Buddha's bath house. Not far from these but outside the city on the south east side was the old Ghosilarama or Monastery built by Ghoshila with an Asoka tope above 200 feet high. Here writes Yuan chuan¹ the Buddha preached for several years. Beside this tope was a place with traces of the sitting and walking up and down of the Four Past Buddhas and there was another Buddha Hair and nail relic tope.

The Ghosila of this passage was a great man of very small stature. he was one of the three chief ministers of state of Kosambi in the time of the Buddha who converted him and admitted him as a lay disciple. Then Ghoshila, within his own grounds, set up an arama or Monastery for the Buddha, and it was in it that the Buddha usually lodged on his visits to Kosambi. These apparently, were not very frequent, and we do not know Yuan chuan's autho-

¹ Divyav. ch. XXXVI Dh. 1. 172 ff. Fo shuo yu tien wang ching (No. 38) Yu te yen wang ching (No. 23 (No. 29)).

city for his statement that the Buddha preached here for several years. In Pali literature this Ghosila is called Ghosita the seṭṭhi, and his monastery is the Ghositarama. His name is translated in some of the Chinese versions of Buddhist books by *Mei yin* (美音) or 'Fine Voice'. In his infancy and childhood this Ghosita had a long series of the most exciting escapes from attempts to murder him.¹

To the south east of the Ghoshilarama Yuan chuang proceeds was a two story building with an old brick upper chamber and in this Vasubandhu lodged and composed the *Wei shih lun* (唯或惟識論) for the refuting of Hinayanists and the confounding of non Buddhists.

The Sanskrit original of the name given here as in other passages of the Life and Records, as *Wei shih lun* is restored as 'Vidyamatra siddhi śāstra' by Julien Mr. Bunyiu Nanjo gives 'Vidyāmatrasiddhi' as the Sanskrit name and applies it to several other works such as the 'Cheng-wei-shih lun'.² This last is a commentary by Dharmapāla Sthiramati, and eight other Pūṣas on Vasubandhu's "*Wei shih san shih lun* (or with *sung*)". The little treatise *Wei-shih-lun* is called in the Ming collection "*Ta sheng Leng-ka-ching wei shih lun*" that is "*Mahayana Lanka sutra vidyamatra śāstra*", a name which does not appear in the old texts, and is perhaps unauthorized.³ Some of the old texts give the title as "*Ta shêng wei shih lun*", and this is warranted by the contents. There are three Chinese translations of this treatise, bearing different names, and with variations in the matter. The first translation is by Gautamaprajñaruchi (or according to some by Bodhiruchi) A. D. 520⁴, the second is by Paramārtha about A. D. 560⁴, and the third

¹ See J. R. A. S. 1898 p. 741, Divyā p. 529.

² Bun. No. 1197.

³ No. 1238.

⁴ No. 1239.

by our pilgrim in the year 661¹. The treatise has another title— "*P'o-sê-lsin lun* (破色心論)", that is, "the sâstra which refutes matter and mind". The book is a small philosophical poem with an explanatory commentary on the relations of mind and matter. It teaches the unreality of phenomena, and consequently of our sense perceptions apart from the thinking principle, the eternal mind unmoved by change and unsoiled by error. This work was regarded by its author as an exposition of the Buddha's views and teaching on the relation of mind to matter. It quotes and refutes tenets of the non-Buddhist Vaisesikas and of the Buddhist "Vibhasha masters of Kashmir". Some of the author's tenets are to be found in the "*Lan-lavantara sutra*", but we cannot properly describe the *Wei-shih lun* as a commentary on that sutra.

In a mango wood east of the Ghosilarama were the old foundations of the house in which Asanga Pusa composed the "*Hsien yang shêng chiao lun*"

The translation of the title of Asaṅga's work here given means "the śāstra which developes Buddhism" that is, developes Buddha's teaching. The treatise, which we have in Yuan chuang's translation², is an exposition and development of the "*Yogācāryabhūmi śāstra*" already mentioned.

At a distance of eight or nine li south west from the capital, Yuan chuang proceeds was a venomous dragon's cave in which the Buddha had left his shadow after subduing the venomous dragon. This was a matter of record, but the shadow was no longer visible. Beside the Dragon's Cave was an Asoka built tope and at the side of it were the traces of the Buddha's exercise ground, and a hair and nail relic tope at which in many cases the ailments of devotees were cured in answer to prayer. This Kosambi country is to be the last place in which the Śākya [muni] religion will cease to exist, hence all, from king to peasant who visit this land feel deeply moved, and return weeping sadly.

¹ No 1240

² No 1177

According to the Mahasangika Vinaya the malicious dragon of Kosambi, An polo (龍婆羅) by name was subdued by the bhikṣu Shan lai (善來) or Sivigata.¹ Mr Cockburn who does not accept the situation of the Dragon's cave given by our pilgrim is disposed to identify the cave with one now called "Sit's Window." This is "an ancient Buddhist Hermit's cave cut into the vertical face of a precipice 50 feet high. This precipice forms the scarp of the classic hill of Prabhara Allahabad District. But this description it will be observed does not suit the pilgrim's account of the neighbourhood of the cave.

Our pilgrim here it will be noticed speaks of the *Śīla-laja* or Sakya dharma that is the dispensation of Sakya-muni: the system of belief and conduct which he established. The final extinction of this system which was to take place in Kosambi is predicted by the Buddha in the "Mahāyāni sutra." At the end of 1500 years from the Buddha's decease a great bhikṣu at this city was to kill an arhat the disciples of the latter would avenge the murder of their master by the slaughter of the bhikṣu. The troubles caused by these crimes would lead to the destruction of topes and viharas, and finally to the complete extinction of Buddhism.² As the 1500 years were at the time of the pilgrim's visit about at an end pious Buddhists were distressed at the signs of the near fulfilment of the prophecy.

From the Dragon's cave the pilgrim tells us he proceeded in a north east direction through a great wood and after a journey of above 700 li he crossed the Ganges to the north to the city of *Ka she pu lo* (that is Kāsapura or Kajapura). This was above ten li in circuit and its inhabitants were in good circumstances. Close to the city were the ruins of an old monastery where Dharmapala had once gained a great victory over the non-Buddhists in a public discussion. The discussion had been brought about by a former king who wished to destroy Buddhism in the

¹ Seng ki lu ch. 20.

² J Ben A S Vol LVI p. 31.

³ Mo ha mo ja ching ch. 2 (No. 387).

country Beside these ruins was an Asoka tope, of which 200 feet still remained above ground, to mark the place at which the Buddha had once preached for six months, and near this were traces of the Buddha's exercise ground and a tope with his hair-and-nail relics

The name of this city, which is not mentioned in the Life, is restored by Julien as Kaśapura.

PI-SHO-KA.

From Kasapura, the pilgrim narrates, he went north 170 or 180 *li* to the country which he calls *Pi* (or *Ping*, or *Pi* or *Fi*)-*sho ka* (that is perhaps, Visoka) This country was above 4000 *li* in circuit and its chief city was sixteen *li* in circuit The grain crops of the country were very plentiful, fruit and flowers abounded, it had a genial climate, and the people had good ways, were studious and given to good works It had above twenty Buddhist monasteries and 3000 Brethren who were all adherents of the Sammatīya School There were above 50 Deva Temples and the non-Buddhists were very numerous

On the east side of the road south of the capital was a large monastery In it the arhat Devaśarman composed his "Shih shên-lun" in which he denied the Ego and the non-Ego At this place there had also been another arhat by name Gopa, who wrote the treatise "Shêng chiao yao shih lun" (or "Śāstra on the essential realities of Buddhism"), affirming the existence of the Ego and the non Ego The opposite doctrines of these two great religious philosophers led to serious controversies in the church

The Life, which as we have seen makes Visoka to be 500 *li* to the east of Kosambi, places the large monastery of this passage on "the left side (east) of the south-east road", but *tung*, "east" is possibly a clerical error for *ch'êng*, "city" The Life also gives the name of Devaśarman's treatise as "Shih-shên-tsu-lun (識身足論)", "the sāstra of the Foot of the Perception Body". We have the work in Yuan chuang's translation, the title being as in the Life with the word Abhidharma prefixed.¹ Its Sanskrit title has been restored as "Abhidharma Vijñānakāyapāda

¹ No 1281 See Bur Int. p. 448 Tar S 56 and 296

sāstra", but its short title, is "Vijñānakāya śāstra" as in our pilgrim's translation here. The treatise is one of the Six Pada (*Tsit*) called Abhidharma sutra of the Saivastivādin School, and it was considered by the Vaibhāṣikas as canonical, but by the Sautrantikas as only the work of a bhikṣu. Yuan-chuang, it will be noticed, calls the author an aīhat, but in other places he is merely a bhikṣu or sthavira. The work is a tedious argumentative treatise combating the views of a Moggallāna who denied the reality of the Past and the Future, and arguing against other tenets apparently held by other early Buddhists. Our pilgrim's statement that it denied the Ego and the non-Ego, or "I and men", is a very unsatisfactory one.

The treatise by Gopa mentioned in the present passage does not seem to be in the Chinese collections of Buddhist works, and nothing is known apparently about the author or his work. As Devaśarman is supposed to have lived about 400, or, according to some, about 100 years after the Buddha's decease Gopa must have lived about the same time.

At this large monastery also, Yuan chuang proceeds to narrate, *Hu-fa* (Dharmapala) P'usa once held a discussion for seven days with 100 Hinayana sāstra masters and utterly defeated them. In this district, moreover, the Buddha lived for six years preaching and teaching. Near the tope which commemorated his stay and work and which stood near the large monastery was a marvellous tree, it was six or seven feet high. This tree had been developed from a tooth-stick which the Buddha after using it had cast down. The tooth stick took root and grew and flourished, and it still remained a tree in spite of the persistent efforts of heretics to cut it down and destroy it.

The Tooth-stick tree of this passage was above 70 feet high according to the Life and the Fang-chih. Fa-hsien, it will be remembered, has a similar story about his city of Sha-ki, and there the tree, as in our text, was only seven feet high.

Cunningham thinks he proves that the *Pi-sho ka* or Viśoka (?) of Yuan-chuang is the Sha-ki (or Sha-ti) of

Fa hsien and the Śīketā or Ayodhyā of Indian literature.¹ But in his arguments he seems to quite ignore the fact that Fa hsien places Śrīkṣi thirteen (not as Legge has by a slip three) *yojanas* or nearly 100 miles in a south east direction from Kānauj and so either at or near Yuan chuang's Ayudhya which was 100 miles south east from Kānauj. Then Cunningham makes the name of this city to be the same as that of the lady Viśākha but Yuan-chuang like others transcribes the lady's name by three characters different from those which he uses for writing the name of this city. Further, from Śrīkṣi to Śrīvastī the direction was south and the distance eight *yojanas* or less than 50 miles while from Viśokā to Śrīvastī it was 500 *li* or about 100 miles in a north east direction. Moreover the *Li-fa*, as has been stated, places Viśokā 500 *li* to the east of Kosambī. So unless we agree with Mr V Smith in treating Fa hsien's distances and directions as mistakes we cannot make Yuan chuang's Viśokā to be Fa hsien's Śrīkṣi but the former may perhaps be taken to represent the Saketa of the Buddhist scriptures.

The precisely similar stories about the Buddha's tooth stick becoming and remaining a miraculous tree are in favour of the identification of Śrīkṣi and Viśokā. But they are not enough to prove that the two names denoted one city, as such stories were probably invented for several places. We have already met with a tooth stick tree in the early part of the Records and we are to meet with a third in a future chapter.

It is not impossible that Yuan chuang made an excursion from Kosambī to Kaśāpura returned to Kosambī and from the latter continued his journey going east to Viśokā. This would agree with the account in the *Li-fa* which does not mention Kaśāpura. Mr V Smith thinks that Yuan chuangs Kaśāpura 'may very plausibly be identified with the group of ruins centring round Mohanlālganj' fourteen miles south of Lucknow. He adds— "Kursī, in the Bara

banki District, about 27 miles in a direct line from Mohan-
lalganj, corresponds admirably in position with Viśakha
[that is Viśoka] which was 170 or 180 li (less than 30
miles) from Kaśapura" ¹ But these proposed identifications
are not given as strictly accurate, and as Mr Smith ad-
mits, the identifications must await further researches

¹ op c p 523

CHAPTER XII

CHUAN VI.

ŚRĀVASTI TO KUSINARĀ

From the Viśoka district the pilgrim travelled he tells us above 500 *li* (about 100 miles) north east to the *Shih lo fa si ti* (Śrāvastī) country. This country was above 6000 *li* in circuit its capital was a wild ruin without anything to define its areas the old foundations of the "Palace city" were above twenty *li* in circuit and although it was mostly a ruinous waste yet there were inhabitants. The country had good crops and an equable climate and the people had honest ways and were given to learning and fond of good works. There were some hundreds of Buddhist monasteries of which the most were in ruins the Brethren who were very few were Sammatīyas. There were 100 Deva Temples and the non Buddhists were very numerous. This city was in the Buddha's time the seat of government of king Prasenajit and the foundations of this king's old palace remained in the old Palace city. Not far east of these was an old foundation on which a small tope had been built this was the site of the large chapel (Preaching Hall) which king Prasenajit built for the Buddha. Near the site of the chapel was another tope on old foundations this marked the site of the nunnery (*ching sle*) of the Buddha's foster mother the bhikṣum Prajāpatī erected for her by king Prasenajit. A tope to the east of this marked the site of the house of Sudatta the Elder (chief of the non official laymen). At the side of this was a tope on the spot where Angulmāla gave up his heresy. This Angulmāla whose name denotes Finger garland was a wicked man of Śrāvastī who harried the city and country killing people and cutting a finger off each person killed in order to make himself a garland. He was about to kill his own mother in order to make up the required number of fingers when the Buddha in compassion proceeded to convert him. Finger garland on seeing the Buddha was delighted as his Brahmin teacher

had told him that by killing the Buddha and his own mother he would obtain birth in Heaven. So he left his mother for the moment and made a motion to kill the Buddha. But the latter kept moving out of reach and by admonishing the murderer led him to repentance and conversion. Finger garland then was admitted into the Order and by zealous perseverance he attained arhatship.

In this passage the pilgrim according to his usual practice gives the Sanskrit form of the name of the country he describes, viz—Śrāvastī. This was properly not the name of the country which was Kosala but of the capital of that country. Fa hsiên uses the old and generally accepted transcription *She nei* (舍 衛) perhaps for *Sevat* or *Sāvattihī* and he makes the city so called the Capital of Kosala and eight yojanas south from his *Shakī*.¹ This last name which may have been *Shakī* or *Shachi* or *Shatī* is supposed to represent *Siketa* but the restoration of the name and the identification of the place are uncertain. Mr V Smith would change Fa hsiên's *south* here to *north east* and his *eight yojanas* to *eighteen or nineteen yojanas*, changes which seem to be quite inadmissible as the pilgrim evidently made the journey.² In the Vinaya we find the city of Śrāvastī stated to be six yojanas from *Siketa*, and the former is apparently to the east of the latter.³

The site of the Śrāvastī of the present passage was long ago confidently identified by Cunningham with that of 'the great ruined city on the south bank of the Rapti, called *Saket Mahet*' in which he discovered a colossal statue of the Buddha with an inscription containing the name 'Śrāvastī'. This identification has been accepted and defended by other investigators, but there are several strong reasons for setting it aside.⁴ These are set forth

¹ Fo kuo chi ch 20

² J. R. A. S. 1898 p. 523

³ Vin. Mah. VII. In another Vinaya treatise (*Sang ki lu ch* 11) from Śrāvastī to *Śakī* is a two days journey for Ujālī.

⁴ Arch. Sur. India Vol. I p. 330 XI p. 78 A. G. I. p. 409. Set Mahet by W. Hoey, J. A. S. Bengal Vol. LXI (Extra number) An an

by Mr V Smith who, after careful study and personal examination of the districts, has come to the conclusion that the site of Śravastī is in the district of Khajurā in Nepal, a short distance to the north of Balīpur and not far from Nepalganj in a north-north east direction¹. But this proposed identification also has its difficulties, and must await further developments. No discoveries have been made to support the identification, but there seems to be the usual supply of mounds and ruins.

The terms rendered in this passage by "capital" and "palace city" are respectively *tu ch'êng* (都城) and *lung-ch'êng* (宮城). But by the term *tu ch'êng* here we are to understand "the district of the capital", what is called in other books "the Śravastī country" as distinguished from "the Kosala country". *Kung ch'êng* here is taken by Julien to mean "the palace", and by Beal to mean "the walls enclosing the royal precincts". But we must take the term in this passage to denote "the walled city of Śravastī". That this is its meaning in our text is clear from what follows, and from the corresponding passages in the *Life* and the *Fang-chih*, and the description in the *Fo-kuo chi*. In these treatises the words *tu*, *tu-ch'êng*, and *ch'êng*, all used in the sense of capital, are the equivalents of our pilgrim's *kung ch'êng*. His usual term for the chief city of a country is *ta tu-ch'êng*, and he seems to use *tu-ch'êng* here in a peculiar sense. It has been suggested by a learned and intelligent native scholar that the *tu-ch'êng* of this passage denotes the towns and cities of Kosala which were inferior and subordinate to the capital, the *lung ch'êng*. The *tu-ch'êng* of ancient China were the cities which were the official residences of the subordinate feudal chiefs whose sovereign reigned at the royal capital. According to this interpretation the pilgrim states that the other cities of the country were in such utter de-

cient inscribed statue from Śravastī, by Th Bloch Ph D (J A S Bengal Vol LXVII p 274)

¹ op. c. p 527, and J R A S 1900 Art I

solation that their boundaries could not be defined, but the capital, though also in ruins, had old foundations by which its area could be ascertained. But it is perhaps better to take *tu-ch'êng* here as meaning "the Śrāvastī district".

The pilgrim here tells us that Śrāvastī had some hundreds of Buddhist monasteries, very many of which were in ruins. This statement as to the number of Buddhist monasteries in the district is not in agreement with other accounts which represent Śrāvastī as having only two or three Buddhist establishments. It will be noticed that Yuan-chuang mentions by name only one monastery viz—the great one of the Jetavana. Fa-hsien, however, tells of 98 (in some texts 18) monasteries all except one occupied being round the Jetavana vihaia. The translation which our pilgrim gives for the name Prasenaṇṇit (in Pali, Pāsēnadi) is *Shêng chun* (勝軍) or "Overcoming army". I-ching, who transcribes the king's name as in the text and also by *Po-se ni* (波斯匿), gives our pilgrim's translation and another rendering, *shêng-luang* (勝光)¹. The latter means "Excelling brightness", and the name is said to have been given to the son born to Brahmādatta king of Kosala on the morning of the birth of the Buddha, on account of the supernatural brightness which then appeared. Another rendering for the name transcribed *Po-se-ni* is *Ho-yue* (和悅) which means *cheerful, happy-looking*². The two latter translations seem to require as their original a derivative from *prasad* (the Pali *pasādati*), and the transcription *Po-se ni*, which is the one in general use, seems to point to a dialectic variety like *Pasenid*.

Of the old sites in Śrāvastī of which our pilgrim here tells us, the nunnery, the house of *Sudatta*, and the place of Aṅgulimāla's conversion are mentioned by Fa-hsien. But the earlier pilgrim does not seem to have known of

¹ Sar Vin Tsa shih ch 20, Rockhill's Life p 16

² Shih êrh yu chung (No 1374)

was about to kill her, in order to complete his tale when the Buddha appeared on the scene. The misguided youth soon yielded to Buddha's power, was converted and ordained, and rapidly attained arhatship.¹ In some of the Buddhist Scriptures Finger garland is merely a cruel highwayman robbing and murdering and rendering the roads impassable. The Buddha goes to the district infested by the murderer and he goes unattended moved by great compassion he meets with the murderer calls on him to stay in his evil course and give way to his good karma.²

Our pilgrim and Fa hsien we have seen found within Śravastī city a memorial of the place where this Finger garland had been converted and sanctified and benedicted. But this is against the general testimony of the Buddhist writings. According to these the murders were committed and the sudden conversion effected in the country beyond Śravastī³ or at a place very nearly ten yojanas from that city⁴, or in the Angulā country⁵, or in the land of Māgadha.⁶

The pilgrim proceeding with his description relates as follows—

*Five or six *li* south of the city is the *S'e-to* wood (Jetavana) which is the *lei ku tu guan* (Anāthapiṇḍārāma) the temple which king Prasenajita's great Minister Sudatta erected for the Buddha formerly it was a saṅghārāma (monastery), now it is in desolate ruin.

According to Fa hsien the Jetavana viḥāra was 1200 *ju* (paces) outside the south gate of Śravastī on the west side of the road with a gate opening to the east that is

¹ M B p 257 Hsien yu ching ch 11 and Der We se u d T S 300 Ang ku mo ching (No 621) where the student has to collect 100 fingers Tseng yi a han ching c/ 31

² Rhys Davids Questions of Milinda in S B E Vol XXXVI p 355 J P T S for 1888 p 2 Fo shuo Ang ku chi ching (No 622)

³ Fo shuo ang ku chi ching

⁴ Ang ku mo-lo-ching (No 431)

⁵ Tsa a han ching ch 38 (Ang ku to lo 央 覺 多 羅)

⁶ I se vi tsa a han ching c/ 1

toward the highway. The 1200 *pu* of this account made above 5000 feet, and so the two pilgrims are in substantial agreement as to the situation of the Jetavana monastery. In other accounts this establishment is represented as being at a convenient distance from the city of Śrāvastī, but Nagaryuna seems to describe it as having been within the city.² The term here, as before, rendered "temple" is *chung shê*, and Yuan chuang seems to use it in this passage in the sense of "vihāra." This is the sense in which the term is commonly used by the early Chinese Buddhist writers and translators. Thus Fa-hsien calls the great establishment now under notice the *Chu-huan* (for Jetavana) *chung-shê*. In our text this term is evidently used as the equivalent of *arāma*, in the sense of *monastery*, and covers all the buildings of the great establishment.

The name "Sudatta" is translated by our pilgrim Shan-shih (善施) or "Well bestowed" (also interpreted as "Good-giver"), and his *lei-ku-tu* is the old and common rendering for Anāthapindada. Yuan-chuang here calls Sudatta a "high official" (ta ch'ien 大臣), and this title is applied to the man by other writers³, but he was only a settler or Householder. He had been engaged in trade, and had enormous wealth, he is said to have been a butcher, but this is probably a late invention.

At the east gate of the Jetavana monastery were two stone pillars, one on each side of the entrance. These, which were 70 feet high, had been erected by King Asoka, the pillar on the left side was surmounted by a sculptured wheel and that on the right side by an ox.

The statement in this paragraph agrees precisely with Fa-hsien's account of the two pillars. Julien's rendering of it is inexplicable and Beal's is not correct.

¹ See the *She wei kuo Chi huan ssü t'u ching* (舍衛國祇洹寺圖經), *Ssü fên lu*, ch. 50, *Seng ki lu*, ch. 23.

² *Fu-kai chêng-hsing so chi ching*, ch. 4. *Tseng yi a lan ching*, ch. 33.

³ e. g. in *Hsien yü ching*, ch. 10.

was about to kill her, in order to complete his tale when the Buddha appeared on the scene. The misguided youth soon yielded to Buddha's power, was converted and ordained and rapidly attained arhatship.¹ In some of the Buddhist Scriptures Finger garland is merely a cruel highwayman robbing and murdering and rendering the roads impassable. The Buddha goes to the district infested by the murderer, and he goes unattended moved by great compassion he meets with the murderer calls on him to stay in his evil course and give way to his good karma.²

Our pilgrim and Fa hsien we have seen found within Śravastī city a memorial of the place where this Finger garland had been converted and sanctified and beatified. But this is against the general testimony of the Buddhist writings. According to these the murders were committed and the sudden conversion effected in the country beyond Śravastī³ or at a place very nearly ten yojanas from that city⁴ or in the Angutala country⁵, or in the land of Magadha⁶.

The pilgrim proceeding with his description relates as follows—

*Five or six li south of the city is the *S/e-to* wood (Jetavana) which is the *I/ei ku tu yuan* (Anathapiṇḍārāma) the temple which King Prasenajit's great Minister Sudatta erected for the Buddha formerly it was a saugharama (monastery) now it is in desolate ruin.

According to Fa hsien the Jetavana vihāra was 1200 *pu* (paces) outside the south gate of Śravastī on the west side of the road with a gate opening to the east that is

¹ M. B. p. 257. *Ha en yu ching ch* 11 and *Der Weise u d T* S. 303. *Ang ku mo ching* (No. 624) where the student has to collect 100 fingers. *Tseng yi a han ching ch* 31.

² Rhys Davids Questions of Milinda in S. B. E. Vol. XXVI p. 355. J. P. T. S. for 1888 p. 2. *Fo shuo Ang ku chi ching* (No. 600).

³ *Fo shuo ang ku chi ching*.

⁴ *Ang ku mo lo ching* (No. 434).

⁵ *Tsa a han ching ch* 38 (*Ang ku to lo* 央瞿多羅).

⁶ *Pie yi tsa a han ching ch* 1.

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¹ See the *She wei kuo Chi huan ssu tu ching* (舍衛國祇洹寺圖經), *Ssu fen lu ch* 50, *Seng ki li ch* 23.

² *Fu kai cheng hsing so chi ching ch* 4. *Tseng yi a han ching*, *ch* 33.

³ e g in *Hsien yu ching ch* 10.

On the site of the Jetavana monastery the pilgrim found only one building standing in solitary loneliness. This building was the brick shrine which contained the image of the Buddha made for king Prasenajit. This image which was five feet high was a copy of that made for king Udayana of Kosambi already mentioned.

This shrine was also the only building which Fa hsiên found in the Jetavana and according to him it was the image in it which came from its pedestal to meet the Buddha on his return from the Tīrastyāstrimsa Heaven and which was to serve as a model for all future images of the Buddha.

We have next Yuan chuangs version of the oft told story how the Jetavana and the Anāthapīṇḍadaśrama came into the possession of the Buddhists.

The setthi Sudatta noted for his munificent charity wished to build a vihara for the Buddha whom he invited to visit him at his home in Śrāvastī. Buddha sent Śāriputra as an expert to act as manager in the matter for Sudatta. The only suitable site that could be found near Śrāvastī was the Park of Prince Jeta. When the Elder asked the prince to sell his park the prince said joking— 'Yes for as many gold coins as will cover it.' This answer delighted Sudatta and he at once proceeded to cover the ground with gold coins from his treasury (not as Julien has it from the *tresor royal*). When all the ground except a small piece was covered the prince asked Sudatta to desist saying— 'The Buddha truly is an excellent field: it is meet I sow good seed' so on the uncovered ground he erected a temple. Then the Buddha said to Ananda that as the ground of the park had been bought by Sudatta and the trees had been given by Prince Jeta the two men having like intentions their merits should be respected and the place spoken of as 'Jeta's trees Anāthapīṇḍadaśrama'.

In Julien's rendering of this passage he makes the pilgrim represent Sudatta as *unable* to cover all the Park with gold but this is not in the text. Then Julien translates the words *fo cheng liang tien* (佛成良田) by— 'C'est en verité, l'excellent champ du Bouddha', but this is not at all the meaning of the expression. The words state plainly that the Buddha is an 'excellent field' or generous soil, and this sort of expression is of very com-

mon occurrence in the Buddhist Scriptures To give alms of food or clothing, or do any service to Buddhas Pustas or eminent monks or nuns, was to sow good seed in good ground, the crop to be reaped either in this life or in one to come Hence the beings to whom such meritorious services are rendered are called "excellent fields" and of these the most "excellent field" always is the Buddha In the present case the Prince wished to share in the reward which Sudatta would have, and in order to secure this result he remitted a portion of the price for the ground and built a "temple" (*chung shê*) for the Buddha on the space unoccupied by gold coins Some other accounts represent Jeta as refusing to sell even for as many gold coins as would cover the park, and when Sudatta claims that the mention of a sum makes a bargain and Jeta maintains it does not, the Judges to whom the matter is referred decide against the Prince This last is also represented as contributing a porch or vestibule to Sudatta's vihara and in no case is he described as building the whole monastery¹ The statement which Yuan chuang here makes the Buddha address to Ananda about the trees having been given by the Prince, and the ground purchased by Sudatta is a stupid invention to account for the common way of designating the vihara in Chinese translations It was not the pilgrim, however, who invented the story, as it is found in other accounts of the transaction²

The original Jetavana monastery, which was probably neither very large nor substantial and was not well protected, was destroyed by fire in the Buddha's lifetime³ After the death of Sudatta the place was neglected as there was no one to look after the grounds and buildings A new vihara was afterwards built on a greater scale but this also was burnt to the ground At one time, we read,

¹ *Su fen lu* 1 c, *Chung hsü ching* ch 11 (No 859).

² e g in *Fo shuo-Po-ching* chao (No 379)

³ *Shih sung lü* ch 61

the place was utterly abandoned by the Buddhist Brethren and was used as the king's stables, but the buildings were again rebuilt and reoccupied by Buddhist monks. In its palmy days, before its final destruction and abandonment the Jetavana monastery must have been a very large and magnificent establishment. We may believe this without accepting all the rather legendary descriptions of it still extant. Some authorities give the extent of the Park as 80 *chung* or about 130 square acres¹. Others tell us that the grounds were about ten *li* (or two miles) in length by above 700 *pu* (paces) in width, and that they contained 120 buildings or even several hundred houses of various kinds². There were chapels for preaching and halls for meditation, messrooms and chambers for the monks, bathhouses, a hospital, libraries and reading rooms, with pleasant shady tanks, and a great wall encompassing all. The Libraries were richly furnished, not only with orthodox literature but also with Vedic and other non-Buddhist works, and with treatises on the arts and sciences taught in India at the time. The monastery was also well situated, being conveniently near the city, and yet away from the distracting sights and noises of the streets. Moreover the Park afforded a perfect shade, and was a delightful place for walking in during the heat and glare of the day, it had streams and tanks of clear cool water, it was also free from noxious stinging creatures, and it was a favourite resort of the good and devotional people of all religions. The native beauties and advantages of the place had been greatly improved by its first Buddhist occupants, for the Buddha directed his disciples to plant trees in the grounds and by the roadside. He also caused the grounds to be protected from goats and cattle, and had a supply of water brought in by artificial means³.

¹ Fo shuo Poh ching ch ao

² Shih wei kuo Chi huan ssü tu ching Shih erh yü ching (No 1376 tr A D 392)

³ Shu fen lü ch 50

Continuing his description Yuan chuang tells us that at the north east of the Anāthapindadārama was a tope to mark the spot at which the Buddha washed a sick bhikkhu. This was a Brother who was suffering pain and living in isolation. The Master seeing him asked him what was his malady and why he was living alone. The Brother replied— I am of an indolent disposition and intolerant of medical treatment, so I am now very ill and have no one to attend on me. Then the Buddha was moved with pity and said to him— Good sir, I am now your medical attendant. Thereupon he stroked the patient with his hand and all the man's ailments were cured. The Buddha then bore him outside the chamber changed his bed washed him and dressed him in clean clothes and told him to be zealous and energetic. Hearing this the Brother felt grateful and became happy in mind and comfortable in body.

This story is related in several of the Buddhist Scriptures with some variations of detail. According to the Vinaya, and some other authorities, the Buddha and Ānanda one day going the rounds of the Jetavana establishment found a Brother lying in a chamber apart from all the others, and suffering from a troublesome and unpleasant malady. The sick man, who was apparently quite helpless, explained to Buddha that the Brethren left him to himself because he had been useless to them. This means that he had been a selfish lazy man refusing to help others or do his proper share of work. In the Vinaya the incident is made the occasion of the Buddha drawing up rules for the care to be taken of a sick bhikkhu by the Brethren.¹ In one book the Buddha is represented as telling the neglected sick Brother that his present misfortunes were the result of ill conduct in a previous existence.² In two treatises the scene of the incident is laid at Rājagṛha and these have other differences of detail.³

To the north west of the arama we are next told was a small tope which marked the spot at which Maudgala putra (Maud-

¹ Vin Mah VIII 26. Sangkalu ch 28. See also the story in Vibhāṣa lun ch 11 (scene not given).

² Fo shuo sheng ching ch 3 (No 669 tr A D 285).

³ Tseng yi a han ching ch 40, Pu sa pan sheng man lun ch 4 (No 1312 tr cir A D 970).

galyayana or Moggallāna) made an ineffectual attempt to raise the girdle (or belt) of Śāriputra against the will of the latter. Once the pilgrim relates when the Buddha was at the Anavatapta Lake with a congregation of men and devas he discovered that Śāriputra was absent and he sent Maudgalaputra through the air to summon him to the meeting. In a trice Maudgalaputra was in the Jetavana Vihara where he found Śāriputra mending his canonical robes. When the Master's request was communicated to him Śāriputra said he would go as soon as his mending was finished but Maudgalaputra threatened to carry him off by his supernormal powers. Śāriputra then cast his girdle on the floor and challenged his friend to lift it. Maudgalaputra tried all his magical powers but although he produced an earthquake he could not move the girdle. So he went back alone through the air to Buddha and on his arrival found Śāriputra already seated in the congregation. Thereupon Maudgalaputra declared that he had learned from this occurrence that the potency of *riddhi* (possession of supernormal physical powers) was inferior to that of *prajñā* (spiritual intuition or transcendental wisdom).

This little story is told in several Buddhist treatises with considerable additions. In the 'Tseng yi t'han ching'¹ it is the Dragon king of the Anavatapta Lake who misses Śāriputra from the congregation and asks Buddha to send for him. Here the legend is given with ridiculous wild exaggerations and, as in Yuan chuang's version there is the presence of an unfriendly feeling between the two great disciples. In the "Ta chih tu lun"² the Buddha and his arhats are assembled at the Anavatapta Lake for the purpose of hearing jātaka's told and Śāriputra is missed. Maudgalyayana is sent to bring him, and in order to hasten matters he finishes the mending of Śāriputra's garment by magic a procedure which suggests to Śāriputra the idea of the trial of *prajñā* against *riddhi*. When Maudgalyayana saw that he could not even lift his friend's girdle from the ground against the owner's will, he knew it was useless to think of taking the man himself by the ear, or the shoulder, through the air to the Anavatapta

¹ Ch 29

² Ch 45

Like The Buddha used this incident, as he used certain other events, to teach the superiority of high spiritual attainments over the possession of great magical powers.

Near the "Raising the girdle Tope", the pilgrim proceeds was a well from which water had been drawn for the use of the Buddha. Close to it was an Asoka tope containing a relic of the Buddha and there were in the vicinity at places where he took exercise and preached memorial topes at which there were miraculous manifestations with divine music and fragrance. At a short distance behind the Jetavana monastery was the place at which certain non-Buddhist Brāhmacharins slew a harlot in order to bring reproach on the Buddha. These men as Yuan chuang's story goes hired this harlot to attend the Buddha's discourses and thus become known to all. Then they secretly killed her and buried her body in the Park. Having done this they proceeded to appeal to the king for redress and he ordered investigation to be made. When the body was discovered at the monastery the heretics exclaimed that the great Śramaṇa Gautama who was always talking of morality and gentleness after having had illicit intercourse with the woman had murdered her to prevent her from talking. But thereupon the devas in the air cried out that this was a slander of the heretics.

Fa hsien and other authorities give the name of the unfortunate harlot of this story as Sundarī. This, it will be remembered was the name of the fair charmer who once led astray a wise and holy ascetic. The word means *beautiful woman*, and it is rendered in some Chinese translations by *Hao shou* or "Good Head".¹ The woman of our story is also called Sundarānandī,² which is the name of a nun in the primitive Buddhist church. She is represented as the disciple (and apparently the mistress) of one of the old non-Buddhist teachers of Koslā (or of another district). Seeing these teachers distressed at the growing preeminence of Gautama Buddha, she suggested to them the expedient here described for ruining Gautama and restoring her master and the other teachers to their former position of influence. But some authorities like Yuan chuang and Fa hsien represent the harlot as having

¹ Fo shuo yi tsu ching ch 1 (No 674)

² P u sa ch u tai ching ch 7 (No 433)

been forced by the Brahmins to attend the Buddha's sermons, and afterwards submit to be murdered. According to one account the Buddha had in ages before been an actor, and the woman a harlot at the same time and in the same place the actor had then killed the harlot for her ornaments and buried her body at the hermitage of a Pratyeka Buddha.¹ In another old story this Sundari had been in a former birth a wicked queen and the Buddha had been the wise and faithful servant of the king her husband.²

Continuing his narrative the pilgrim states that above 100 paces to the east of the Jetavana monastery was a deep pit through which Devadatta for having sought to kill the Buddha by poison went down alive into Hell. Devadatta the son of *Hu fan uang* ("Peck food king") had in the course of twelve years by zealous perseverance acquired the 80 000 compendia of doctrine and afterwards for the sake of its material advantages he had sought to attain supernatural power. He associated with the irreligious (lit. wicked friends) and reasoned with them thus— "I have all the outward signs of the Buddha except two, a great Congregation attends me and I am as good as the Ju lai. Putting these thoughts in practice he broke up the Brotherhood (that is by alluring disciples from the Buddha to himself). But Maudgalyaputra and Sariputra under Buddha's instructions and by his power, won the strayed Brethren back. Devadatta however, kept his evil mind put poison in his finger nails with a view to kill Buddha in the act of doing him reverence and fared as in the story.

The temporary "breaking up" of the Brotherhood instituted by Gautama Buddha by the schism caused by his cousin Devadatta is a famous incident in the history of the primitive Buddhist Church. The story of the schism is narrated in several books at greater or less length and with a few variations of detail.³ According to some accounts there were 500 weak young Brethren seduced from the Buddha by Devadatta, and after a short time

¹ *Heng chi hsing ching* (No. 733)

² *Fo shuo Poh ching ch ao*

³ *Vin. Chul. VII 3*, *Rockhill Life* p. 91, *Dh.* p. 115, *Sū. fan 17*, ch. 46

brought back again by Śīripuṭī and Maudgalyāyana. These 500 men then misled by the great schismatic had been his dupes many ages before. In one of their former births they had all been monkeys forming a band of 500 with a chief who was Devadatta in his monkey existence. On the advice of their chief these simple monkeys set themselves to draw the moon out of a well, and were all drowned in the attempt by the breaking of the branch by which they were swinging.¹

It is worthy of note in connection with Yuan chuang's description that Fa hsien did not see any *pit* here. The latter describes the spots at which the wicked woman and Devadatta went down into Hell as having marks of identification given to them by men of subsequent times. The design and attempt to murder the Buddha by poison here described by Yuan chuang are mentioned also by Fa hsien, and they are found in the Tibetan texts translated by Mr Rockhill² but they are not in all the accounts of Devadatta's proceedings. The great learning and possession of magical powers here ascribed to Devadatta are mentioned in some of the canonical works, and his claim to be the equal of his cousin in social and religious qualifications is also given.³ But his abrupt bodily descent into Hell is generally ascribed to other causes than merely the abortive attempt to poison the Buddha.

Our pilgrim here, as we have seen calls Devadatta's father *Hu fan uang* which is a literal rendering of Dronodanaraja. This Dronodanarāja was a brother of King Suddhodana the father of Gautama Buddha. By a strange slip of the pen Johnen makes the pilgrim here describe Devadatta as 'le fils du roi *Ho uang*', and the mistake is of course repeated by others. We are to meet with this troublesome man Devadatta again in the Records.

¹ Seng ki lu ch 7

² Rockhill Life p 107

³ Shi h sung lu ch 86, Ts'ing yi a han chung ch 47, Abhi ta vib, ch 11f

To the south of Devadatta's fosse Yuan chuang continues was another pit through which the bhikshu *Ku la ti* (Kokālika) having slandered the Buddha went down alive into Hell

This man Kokālika is better known as a partisan of Devadatta than as an enemy of the Buddha. He was we learn from other sources an unscrupulous friend and follower of Devadatta always praising his master and calling right wrong and wrong right in agreement with him. They had met in a former state of existence when Kokālika was a crow and Devadatta a jackal. The latter had scented the corpse of an unburied eunuch and had nearly devoured its flesh when the hungry crow, eager to get bones to pick, praised and flattered the jackal in fulsome lying phrases. To these the latter replied in a similar strain and then feigning language brought on them a rebuke from a rishi who was the Pusa.¹

Still farther south above 800 *paces* the pilgrim proceeds was a third deep pit or trench. By this *Chan che* the Brahmin woman for having calumniated the Buddha passed alive into Hell. Yuan chuang then tells his version of the story of Chan che whom he calls a disciple of the Non-Buddhists. In order to disgrace and ruin Gautama and bring her masters into repute and popularity she fastened a wooden basin under her clothes in front. Then she went to the Jetavana monastery and openly declared that she was with child illicitly to the preacher and that the child in her womb was a Sakya. She was believed by all the heretics but the orthodox knew she was speaking slander. Then Indra as a rat exposed the wicked trick and the woman went down to "Unremitting Hell" to bear her retribution.

The loyal bad woman of this story, called by the pilgrim "Chan che the Brahmin woman", is the *Chunda mananda* of the Pali Scriptures.² This Pali name may also be the original for the *Chan che mo na* of Fa hsien and others another form of transcription of the name being *Chan che mo na l-i* with *nu*, "woman", added.³ But we find the original name translated by *Pao chih* (保志) or

¹ Fo shuo shing ching ch 3 Sar Vin Po-sung shih cl 18.

² Dh p 338 lat 3, 418⁷ Chinchin Hardy M B p 294

³ Pu shu chun t'ai ching cl 7

"Fierce minded", that is, Chandāmanī, which was apparently the early form of the name¹ In a Chinese translation of a Buddhist work the woman is designated simply the "Many tongued Woman"² According to one authority she was a disciple of the Tirthukā teacher Kesakambalā, and it was at the instigation of this teacher that she pretended to be with child to the Buddha in the manner here described Another version of the story, and perhaps the earliest one, makes Chan che (or Chanda) a Buddhist nun led astray by evil influences When her trick with the basin is discovered she is sentenced to be buried alive, but the Buddha intercedes for her, and she is only banished Then the Buddha gives a very satisfactory explanation of the woman's conduct She had come in contact with him long ago in his existence as a dealer in pearls, and he had then incurred her resentment They had also met in another stage of their previous lives when the Pusa was a monkey, and Chanche was the relentless wife of the Turtle (or the Crocodile) and wanted to eat the monkey's liver So her desire to inflict injury on the Buddha was a survival from a very old enmity³ The Pali accounts and Fa-hsien agree with Yuan-chuang in representing Chan che as going down alive into Hell, but, as has been stated, Fa-hsien differs from Yuan chuang in not making mention of the pit by which she was said to have passed down⁴

The narrative next tells us that 60 or 70 *paces* to the east of the Jetavana Monastery was a temple (*ching shê*) above sixty feet high which contained a sitting image of the Buddha with his face to the east At this place the Julaī had held discussion with the Tirthukas (*wai tao*) To the east of this *ching shê* was a Deva Temple of the same dimensions which was shut out from the western sun in the evening by the Buddhist temple, while

¹ Fo shuo shêng ching, ch 1 (Here Chan che is a nun)

² Hsing chi hsing ching ch 1

³ Fo shuo shêng ching ch 1 Jātaka (tr Chalmers) Vol I p 142

⁴ In some of the books e g in the Ch ū tai ching and the Fo shuo shêng ching the woman does not undergo any punishment, in the former treatise moreover the occurrence takes place at Vesālī

the latter in the morning was not deprived of the rays of the sun by the Deva Temple

Fa-hsien also saw these two temples, and he has given a similar account of them. But he applies the name *Ling fu* (影覆) or 'Shadow Cover' to the Deva temple while Yuan chuang gives it to the Buddha temple. In the former case the term means *Overshadowed* and in the latter it means *Overshadowing*.

Three or four li east from the Overshadowing Temple Yuan chuang continues was a tope at the place where Sariputta had discussed with the Tirthikas. When Sariputta came to Sravasti to help Sudatta in founding his monastery the six non-Buddhist teachers challenged him to a contest as to magical powers and Sariputta excelled his competitors.

The contest of this passage took place while Sariputta was at Sravasti assisting Sudatta in the construction of the great monastery. But the competition was not with the 'six great teachers' it was with the chiefs of the local sects, who wished to have the young and successful rival in religion excluded from the district. In our passage it will be noted that the pilgrim writes of Sariputta discussing with the non-Buddhists, and this seems to be explained as meaning that he fought them on the point of magical powers. This is in agreement with the story as told in some of the Buddhist books. All the leading opponents of the Buddha were invited to meet Sariputta at an open discussion. They came and when all were seated the spokesman of the Brahmins Red-eye by name, was invited to state the subject of discussion.¹ He thereupon intimated that he wished to compete with Sariputta in the exhibition of magical powers. This was allowed and the result was that Sariputta came off conqueror.

Beside the Sariputta Tope was a temple (*ching shi*) in front of which was a tope to the Buddha. It was here that the Buddha

¹ Chung hsu ching ch 12, Rockhill Life p 48. This tope to Sariputta is not mentioned by Fa-hsien, it is perhaps the tope to Sariputta in the Jetavana pointed out to Asoka in the Divyav p 394. A yü wang chuan ch 2.

worsted his religious opponents in argument, and received Mother
• Visakha's invitation

The spot at which the Buddha silenced his proud and learned opponents at Śrāvastī was supposed to have been marked by a special tope. This was one of the Eight Great Topes, already referred to, associated with the Buddha's career. We cannot regard the tope of this paragraph, or the temple of a previous passage, as the celebrated Great Tope of Śrāvastī¹

Of the lady here called "Mother Visakhā" we have to make mention presently. The *invitation* or request here mentioned was probably connected with the Hall she made for the Buddha and his disciples²

To the south of the Accepting invitation Tope, the pilgrim proceeds, was the place at which king Virudhaka, on his way to destroy the Sakyas, saw the Buddha, and turned back with his army. When Virudhaka ascended the throne, Yuan chuang relates, he raised a great army and set out on the march [from Śrāvastī to Kapilavastu] to avenge a former insult. A bhikshu reported the circumstance to the Buddha, who thereupon left Śrāvastī, and took his seat under a dead tree by the roadside. When the king came up he recognized Buddha, dismounted, and paid him lowly reverence. He then asked the Buddha why he did not go for shade to a tree with leaves and branches. "My clan are my branches and leaves", replied Buddha, "and as they are in danger what shelter can I have?" The king said to himself— "The Lord is taking the side of his relatives — let me return." So he looked on Buddha moved with compassion, and called his army home.

Near this place, the pilgrim goes on, was a tope to mark the spot at which 500 Sakya maidens were dismembered by this same king's orders. When Virudhaka had taken his revenge on the Sakyas he selected 500 of their maidens for his harem. But

¹ Dr Hoey proposes to identify the *chung shê* with its tope of this passage with "the ruins named Baghaha Bari' near Sahet Mahet, and he thinks that this may be the site of "Visakha's Purvarama". But this is quite impossible, and the pilgrim does not note, as Dr Hoey says he does, that the *chung shê* was "in strict dependence on the Sangharama (of the Jetavana)", op. c. p. 38.

² Or the request which the Buddha accepted may have been Mother Visakhā's petition to be allowed to present robes to the Brethren.

these young ladies were haughty, and refused to go "abusing the king as the son of a slave" (*li-chi-icang-chia-jen chih* 其王家人之子). When the king learned what they had done, he was wroth and ordered that them maidens should be killed by mutilation. So their hands and feet were cut off, and their bodies were thrown into a pit. While the maidens were in the agonies of dying they called on the Buddha, and he heard them. Telling his disciples to bring garments (that is, for the naked maidens) he went to the place of execution. Here he preached to the dying girls on the mysteries of his religion on the binding action of the five desires, the three ways of transmigration, the separation from the loved and the long course of births and deaths. The maidens were justified and enlightened by the Buddha's teaching, and they all died at the same time and were reborn in Heaven. Indra in the guise of a Brahmin had their bodies and members collected and cremated and men afterwards erected the tope at the place.

Not far from this tope, the pilgrim tells us was a large dried up pond, the scene of Virudhaka's extinction. The Buddha had predicted that at the end of seven days from the time of the prophecy the king would perish by fire. When it came to the seventh day the king made up a pleasure party by water and remained in his barge with the ladies of his harem on the water in order to escape the predicted fate. But his precautions were in vain, and on that day a fierce fire broke out on his barge, and the king went alive through flames into the Hell of unintermitting torture.

We are to meet with this king Virudhaka again presently in connection with his sack of Kapilavastu. Fa hsiên, without mentioning the dead tree, makes the place at which the Buddha waited for Virudhaka to have been four *li* to the south-east of Śrāvastī city and he says there was a tope at the spot. In Buddha's reply to the king about his kindred being branches and leaves there was probably in the original a pun on the words *śikkhī*, a branch, and Śākya. By the answer of the Buddha the king knew that he was speaking from an affectionate interest in his relatives, and the king was accordingly moved to recall his army. The Buddha repeated the interview with the king twice and then left the Śākyas to the consequences of their karma.

The number of Śākya maidens carried off by Virudhaka

Fa-hsien, who also places the "Wood of obtained eyes" four *li* to the north west of the Jetavana Vihara, does not know of brigands, and the 500 who receive their sight and plant their sticks were blind men resident at the monastery. Julien suggests "Aptametravina" as possibly the Sanskrit original for "Wood of obtained eyes" but we know that the name was Andharana. This means the *dark* or *blind wood*, and it was translated by *lin lin* (林) with the same meaning or by *Chou* (幽) *an lin* the "Wood of day darkness" "Obtained Eyes" and "Opened Eyes" (*I'ai-yen*) are names which must have been given long after the Buddha's time and it is possible that they exist only in translations. The Andharana as we learn from the pilgrims and the Buddhist scriptures was a favourite resort of the Buddhist Brethren for meditation and other spiritual exercises. Here the early bhikshus and bhikshunis spent a large portion of their time in the afternoons sitting under the trees on the mats which they had carried on their shoulders for the purpose. The Wood was very cool and quiet, impervious to the sun's rays, and free from mosquitoes and other stinging torments.¹

Before we pass on to the next city in our pilgrim's narrative we may notice some of the more important omissions from his list of the interesting sights of the Sravasti district. There were two mountains in this district, one called the *Ta shan* or Pagoda Hill, that is perhaps, Chutyagiri, and the other called the *Sa* (in some texts *Po*)-*lo lo* or Salar (?) mountain, and of neither of these have we any mention.² Some of the serious Brethren in the early church resorted to these mountains and lived on them for several months. Then our pilgrim does not notice the *A-chi lo* (阿脂 (or 訖) 里) or Aciravati River

¹ See *Seng ki lu ch* 9, *Ts'ing yi a han chung ch* 33, *Vibhāṣa lun, ch* 13, *Sam Nik. Vol I* p 128, 135 (P T S). In the *Seng ki lu (ch* 29) we find the rendering "opening eyes wood", and so in other places.

² *Seng ki lu ch* 32 (*T'a shan*), *Chung a han-chung ch* 8 (*So* or *Po lo lo shan*).

which flowed south eastwards past the Śrāvastī city nor does he mention the Sundaia (or *Sun-tê lu*) or Sundarikā River¹ We read in other books also of the "Pond of Dismemberment", and this is not mentioned by the pilgrim. It was the basin of water near which the Sakya maidens were mutilated and left to perish. This is apparently the *Pu to li*, the "celebrated water of Śrāvastī", also called Patali and Paṭala. The Tibetan translators apparently had Patali which they reproduce literally by "red-coloured". But the original was perhaps Patala which is the name of a Hell, and it will be remembered that Yuan-chuang places the pond or lake through which Virudhaka went down into Hell close to the spot at which the maidens were mutilated. Then the lake is said to have received a name from this dismemberment. In the Avadāna Kalpalatā it is called the Hastagaṇbha or "Hand containing" Lake, and this is apparently the meaning of the Tibetan name which Rockhill seems to translate "the pool of the severed hand"². Then that one of the Eight Great Topes of the Buddha which was at Śrāvastī is not mentioned, unless we are to regard it as the tope at Buddha's shrine already noticed. But the strangest and most unaccountable omission is that of the Purvārāma or East monastery. This great and famous establishment was erected by Viśākhā known in religion as "Migāra's Mother". She was actually the daughter-in-law of Migāra, but after she converted that man, and made him a devout Buddhist, she was called his mother. In Pali her monastery is called Pubbārāma Migāramātu Pāsāda, that is, the East Monastery the Palace of Migāra's mother. This name is translated literally into Chinese, but the translators also render Migāramātu by *Lai-mu* or "Deer-mother", and Migāra is "Deer-son". This monastery which was

¹ Sêng k'í lu, ch 15 et al. (*A ch'í fo river*), Chung a han ching, ch 29, Tsêng yí a han ching, ch 6, Tsa a han ching ch 47, Sam Nik Vol I p 167, Fa chu pi yu ching, ch 1.

² Sêng k'í lu, ch 3, Shih sung lu, ch 46, Rockhill Life p 121.

second only to the Jetavana Vihāra was in a disused royal park. There were buildings at it for the residence of the bhikshus and bhikshunis, and there were quiet halls for meditation and for religious discourse. Fa-hsien makes mention of this famous establishment and places its site six or seven *li* to the north east of the Jetavana Vihāra. This agrees with references to the monastery in other books which place it to the east (or in the east part) of the city and not far from the Jetavana.¹

Above sixty *li* to the north west of Sravasti the pilgrim narrates, was an old city the home of Kassapa the previous Buddha. To the south of this old city was a tope where this Buddha after attaining bodhi met his father and to the north of the city was a tope with his bodily relics these two topes had been erected by king Asoka.

Fa-hsien who places Kassapa Buddha's natal city 50 *li* to the west of Sravasti calls the city *Tu nei* (都維). These characters probably represent a sound like *Topi* and the city is perhaps that called *Tu yi* in a Vinaya treatise.² Fa-hsien also mentions topes at the places where Kassapa Buddha met his father where he died, and where his body was preserved but he does not ascribe any of these topes to Asoka. Hardy's authority makes Benares to have been the city of this Buddha and this agrees with several sutras in Chinese translations. In a Vinaya treatise Benares is the city, and the king Aśoka (阿育王) erects a grand tope at the place of Kassapa Buddha's cremation.³

¹ U B p. 233 Angut Nik Vol III p 344 (P T S), Tsa a han ching ch 36 Chung a han ching ch 29, Ta chih tu lun c/ 3. The term, Purvarama (or Pubbarama) is sometimes interpreted as meaning "what was formerly an arama" or "a former arama" but this does not seem so suitable as "East arama." In the Sar Vin Tsa shih ch II 1 ching has Lu tzu mu chin yuan (鹿子母莊園) or "the old ārama of Migaramata."

² *Tu-yi* (都夷) is called a *ch'u lao* of the Śravasti country in Seng ki lu c/ 23.

³ M B p 99 Chi Fo fa mu bang tzu ching (No 696), Fo-shuo-chi Fo ching (No 860) Fo shuo Fo ming ching ch 9 (No 404) where the name of the city *chih shih* (知使) is said to be an old name

There were some other places of interest to Buddhists which are described in Buddhist books as being in this Kosala country. One of these was the *Ka-li lo* (迦利囉) Hall which was at a large *cave* not far from the capital ¹. This transcription is perhaps for *Katira* which means a *cave*, and may have been the name of a hill, or it may be for *Kareru*, a place often mentioned in the Pali books. It was in the *Kali lo* Hall that the Buddha delivered the very interesting cosmological sutra entitled "*Ch'i-shih yin-pên ching*" Then near the capital was the *Solo lo* (娑羅邏), that is, *Salara* hill, with steep sides, in the caves of which *Anuruddha* and some hundreds of other bhikshus lodged ². Farther away and about three yojanas from *Śrāvastī* was the *Śākya* village called *Lu t ang* (鹿堂) or *Deer-Hall*. Here the Buddha had an establishment in which he lodged and preached, and in which he was visited by the king of Kosala ³.

for Benares. *Sar Vin Tsa shih ch* 25 where *Ki li ki* king of Benares erects a grand tope to this Buddha.

¹ *Ch'i shih yin pen ching* (No. 549)

² *Chung a han ching ch* 19

³ *Tseng yi a han ching ch* 32
